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Contents

THREE YEARS OF EXPERIMENTATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS, <i>D. Lee Hamilton</i> and <i>Ernest F. Haden</i>	85
THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY OF LITERATURE TO WORLD UNDERSTANDING, <i>Max</i> <i>Oppenheimer, Jr.</i>	103
THE GERMAN SCHOOLS AND DEMOCRACY—AN AMERICAN OBSERVER IN GERMAN CLASS- ROOMS, <i>Margarete L. Schneeweiss</i>	111
MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE MODERN CURRICULUM, <i>Olive Ely Hart</i>	126
LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: SUGGESTIONS FOR MASTERY, <i>Maude Helen Duncan</i> ..	132
JACINTO GRAU'S "EL SEÑOR PIGMALIÓN," <i>William Giuliano</i>	135
THE AURAL-ORAL APPROACH AT INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, <i>Harry V. Wann</i> ..	144
LANGUAGES IN ACTION, <i>Raymond Potouillet</i>	146
NOTES AND NEWS.....	151
MEETINGS.....	152
REVIEWS.....	154

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Three Years of Experimentation at the University of Texas

IN APRIL, 1946, a committee was elected by the Department of Romance Languages of the University of Texas to carry on experimentation for three years in different ways of presenting the first year of French and Spanish. (See "Experimental Program in Romance Languages at the University of Texas, *Modern Language Journal*, November, 1946.) The Committee on 406-407 presents this report in the belief that its findings are of consequence to all in our profession. Not that our results or conclusions are earthshaking, for they were already "known" (i.e. assumed, suspected, wishfully believed) by some in the profession. But they represent experimentation which is, so far as we know, unique. It is unique in that it fulfilled the following conditions, *which are essential to any such attempt to evaluate teaching methods*: it was experimentation not in the sense of merely "doing something previously untried" (of that kind there has been so much that the word "experiment" has become a semantic trap), but of comparing two programs, both of which were prescribed in as great detail as possible; the comparison made systematic use of standardized tests, in so far as such tests seemed useful; the experimentation was conducted within the ordinary administrative and teaching framework, so that nothing was done which could not be duplicated at almost any college or university with quite average students; and the experimentation included all students taking the courses involved, so that the results rest on a base sufficiently broad to have some statistical validity.¹

For the three years we devised six programs, by comparison of which we hoped to indicate answers to three basic questions. We have chosen to weave the results into the text of this report rather than to tabulate them, since the latter presentation encourages misinterpretation. We are aware that the descriptions of the six programs strain the limits of good prose in their detail; but we feel strongly that even so they are not full enough to answer all the questions a reader ought to ask. It is only fear of intolerable prolixity that keeps us from going further into detail.

¹ The numbers of students involved in the several semesters varied from 250 to 400 in French and from 400 to 750 in Spanish. If the average number per semester in French is taken as 325 and in Spanish as 575, then multiplying the averages by the three years, since each student is included in two semesters, we have a total in French of approximately 975 and in Spanish of about 1725 individual students. Or a combined total of 2700 individuals for whom records were kept. Let the figure stand as a monument to the wearisome bulk of the task and a warning to others who may attempt a similar undertaking without sufficient clerical help.

In the first year, 1946-1947, we were concerned with this question: If two programs place considerably different emphasis on written and oral aspects of the language, will the results show differences roughly proportionate to those between the manners of presentation? In each language we devised a quite conventional course designated Program A and another course giving much more emphasis to oral-auditory aspects called Program B. In French Program A spent five recitations on pronunciation alone, following the presentation of A. B. Swanson's *Concise French Grammar* (Holt, 1941), then continued in Swanson's *Grammar* and picked up W. S. Hendrix and W. E. Meiden's *Beginning French: A Cultural Approach* (Houghton Mifflin, 1940). In the first semester Program A finished the first seventeen lessons in the *Grammar* and the first twelve in *Beginning French*. It continued in the same two books through the second semester, through lesson twenty-seven in the *Grammar* and through lesson fifty-four in *Beginning French*. Students in Program B spent the first two weeks studying pronunciation by means of a film strip which showed diagrams of the vocal organs in the positions required by the sounds of French and in a multigraphed list of those sounds in phonetic symbols, accompanied by physiological descriptions of their articulations. They were urged to attend daily listening sessions, where they heard recordings of first the sounds of French (paralleling the presentation by the film strip), then phrases taken from the first three lessons of Hendrix and Meiden, then in proper sequence the full text of Hendrix and Meiden. In weeks seven and eight they made a transition to French orthography by studying in spelling the texts they had already studied in phonetic symbols and by the introduction of texts in phonetic symbols which gave system to the presentation by means of footnotes underlining in gradually cumulative order all the phonetic symbols of the French sound system and their spelling equivalents found in the text. Program A had no listening sessions. Students in Program B were expected to attend the listening sessions for a minimum of an hour and a half a week throughout the year, though the average attendance was far from fulfilling that requirement. They did all their exercises orally, while Program A did about half orally, half in writing. In the first semester Program B completed the first fifteen lessons in *Beginning French*; in the second they continued through fifty-seven.

In Spanish Program A spent three days on the appendix on pronunciation in G. G. LaGrone's *Conversational Spanish for Beginners* (Holt, 1944). In the first semester it finished the thirty units of *Conversational Spanish*, all of Carlos Castillo and C. F. Sparkman's *De todo un poco* (Heath, 1938), and the first ten selections of L. A. Kasten and Eduardo Neale-Silva's *Lecturas escogidas* (Harper, revised ed. 1945). In the second semester students in Program A studied all of R. L. Grismer and D. K. Arjona's *Short Spanish Review Grammar* (Harper, 1943) and twenty selections from

Lecturas escogidas. Program B in Spanish followed the procedure already outlined for the same program in French, taking from *De todo un poco* the first phrases put on records. After these, in weeks four and five, came the full text of the first unit in *De todo un poco*, the first unit in A. R. Heffler and Ramón Espinosa's *Primeras lecturas* (Oxford, 1941), and the first two units in *Lecturas escogidas*. In the first semester Program B finished the first seven selections in *Primeras lecturas*, all of *De todo un poco*, and the first fifty-four pages of *Lecturas escogidas*. The provisions for listening sessions were the same as in French. Most of the students in Spanish Program B did all their exercises orally. In the first four weeks of the second semester the students in Program B finished twelve selections of *Lecturas escogidas*. Then they started and finished Grismer and Arjona's *Review Grammar* and studied ten more units in *Lecturas escogidas*.

All students in both programs of each language took common examinations on four occasions: at mid-term and at the end of both semesters. In both programs of each language the auditory tests used at mid-term of the first semester and those used as part of the final examinations of the first and second semesters were made by members of this Department. They consisted of statements to be marked true or false and of multiple choice items for completion or for recognition of definitions. (After this first semester true-false questions were dropped, first because they encouraged cheating, second because they proved to be less sensitive and generally less satisfactory than multiple choice items.) These tests used almost exclusively the combined vocabulary previously encountered by the students of both programs and were carefully composed to test only auditory understanding and not knowledge of the class texts. Following are the median scores made on these tests (the weighted scores are those not in parentheses):² first semester mid-term, French Program A 46 (26), Program B 66 (37.5), Spanish Program A 60 (42), Program B 62 (44); first semester final, French Program A 48 (28), Program B 74 (42), Spanish Program A 51 (36), Program B 68 (48); second semester final, French Program A 39 (22), Program B 60 (34), Spanish Program A 41 (29), Program B 44 (31).

The auditory tests used at mid-term of the second semester, when the students had had an average of approximately 110 contact hours (meeting five times a week for a year's credit of eight semester hours), were those issued as the University of Chicago Language Investigation Tests. These tests proved to be unsatisfactory, at least in our circumstances, since they failed to distinguish between students who, by every other indication, af-

² Since the scores made on the auditory tests add up to significantly smaller totals than those on the cooperative tests and since it is worthwhile to compare all scores on a uniform basis, the scores on the auditory tests were increased proportionately to the level of the mean between the total scores of Program A of Program B on the four cooperative tests in each language.

forded grounds for differentiation. The median scores made on these tests the first year were: French Program A 44 (25), Program B 44 (25); Spanish Program A 45 (32), Program B 45 (32). The mean norm computed by the makers of the tests in August, 1946, for Class 1B³ was in French 25.3, in Spanish 28.4.

The tests which we call cooperative tests are those issued by the Cooperative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service. Since the scaled scores for them are made up in such a way that it is unnecessary to distinguish between their different forms, whether elementary or advanced, we give only the scaled scores. The following chart presents the median scores on the cooperative examinations:

	<i>French</i>	<i>Spanish</i>
	<i>First Semester</i>	
Mid-term	Program A 46	Program A 44
	Program B 37	Program B 44
Final	Program A 49	Program A 49
	Program B 42	Program B 49
	<i>Second Semester</i>	
Mid-term	Program A 60	Program A 56
	Program B 54	Program B 57
Final	Program A 69	Program A 60
	Program B 65	Program B 59

The mean norms computed by the Cooperative Test Division for these examinations for Type II College⁴ are: for one year's work in French (six semester hours), 56.7; for two years' work in French (twelve semester hours), 68.8; for one year's work in Spanish (six semester hours), 54.5; for two years' work in Spanish (twelve semester hours), 66.4. Clearly the year's work of eight semester hours gave results which by this criterion were roughly equal to some earlier two-year courses of twelve semester hours.

Of more interest is the comparison between programs A and B. In French Program A made a total score of 177 on the auditory tests, Program B a total of 244. Program B thus had a margin of 67 over Program A, a superiority of 38 per cent. But Program A had a total score of 224 on the cooperative tests, Program B a total score of 198. Program A shows a margin of 26 over Program B, or 13 per cent. By combining the scores on the two kinds of test in French we reach a total of 401 for Program A, 442 for Program B. On this grand total Program B's results are superior to Program A's by a margin of 41, or 10 per cent.

³ "College students in group 1B are defined as: those who (a) had no French in high school (b) are taking an elementary college French course (c) have had 90-130 hours of college instruction."

⁴ "The basis for defining the three types of norms reported is the performance of the entering college freshmen on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. . . . Type II may be thought of as most appropriate for students in typical liberal arts colleges. . . ."

In Spanish Program A's total for the auditory tests was 197, Program B's was 219. Program B's understanding of spoken Spanish is better by 11 per cent (a margin of 22) than Program A's. On the cooperative examinations in Spanish both programs compiled identical totals, i.e. 209. If the two kinds of test are combined, Program B, with a grand total of 428, shows results superior to Program A's by 5 per cent (a margin of 22 over A's 406). It seems reasonable to believe that the margin shown by Program B over Program A in both languages would have been greater, if we had prepared our own auditory test instead of using the test of the University of Chicago Language Investigation.

It is worth noting that in French the margin between the two programs on the auditory tests (including that of the Language Investigation) remained approximately constant (20, 26, 21). The gap between them on the cooperative examinations, however, was progressively closed (9, 7, 6, 4 in favor of A). There is no pattern in the margins between the Spanish programs' scores on the auditory tests (2, 17, 3 in favor of B) or cooperative tests (0, 0, 1 for B, 1 for A). We hesitate to say on this evidence whether the lack of pattern in the Spanish results is to be attributed to faulty tests, a difference for Americans in the ease of learning to understand the two languages, to the larger number of inexperienced teachers on our staff in Spanish, or to a tradition in the teaching of Spanish which is slightly different from that in the teaching of French.

From this first year's experiment we draw the following conclusions: while increased emphasis on oral-auditory aspects of the language is reflected in the results, the difference in results may be considerably less than is often assumed; and listening sessions are a worthwhile adjunct to language teaching.

The two programs of 1947-1948 were designed to help answer this very general question: How does a "systematic," "thorough" presentation of elementary grammar through a traditional grammar text compare in results with a course which allows only the smallest place for grammar, which presents even that minimum inductively, through the immediate confrontation of the student with a few pages of the language, which are repeated orally to the point of near memorization? The former was called Program D, the latter Program E.

Students in both programs in French spent the first four weeks on an introduction to pronunciation through the film strip, multigraphed materials, and general procedure already outlined for Program B. In the fifth week Program D began to use F. K. Turgeon's *Cours Pratique de Français* (Appleton-Century, 1947), which contains copious exercises. Program D wrote about half the exercises and did orally about half. In the first semester Program D went through lesson sixteen, in the second through lesson forty-five. In addition in the latter part of the first semester and through the sec-

and its students read Book I of Frederic Ernst and H. S. Schwarz's *Lectures françaises* (Dryden, 1946).

After the four weeks' introduction to pronunciation students in Program E received multigraphed transcriptions in phonetic symbols of the first selection in *Lectures françaises*. They spent three to five days on the transcription before they received their textbooks, so that they were acoustically rather familiar with the text before seeing it, a process intended to minimize the danger to pronunciation of the transition to spelling. The class exercises consisted first of all of repeating after the instructor, both in chorus and individually, then of reading aloud, then of much question and answer. Those exercises were mixed, not done in sequence separately. By means of multigraphed lists of syntactic features taken from the text and questions based on them the students were led to formulate their own grammatical generalizations, thus compiling their own basic grammar on such features as the articles, subject and object pronouns, the partitive, and the present indicative. (That procedure was not carried very far.) Program E in the first semester finished only the first two anecdotes of *Lectures françaises* (23 pages). In the second semester, in addition to studying A. B. Swanson's *Concise French Grammar* (Holt, 1941), they read in class 62 pages of Book II of *Lectures françaises* (Dryden, 1946). Outside of class they read in Book I the remaining 51 pages and in Book II 121 pages, on which most of them reported by writing short tests in class, although some of them reported in individual conferences. They read a further 100 to 150 pages of their own choosing outside of class and reported on them in conferences. For each program in both French and Spanish listening sessions were provided, since it was felt that their value had been demonstrated in the preceding year.

In their first four weeks all students in Spanish used the materials on pronunciation which had been used the year before in Program B. In the fifth and sixth weeks both Programs D and E used transcriptions in phonetic symbols and Spanish orthography of some materials from the first seven records of *Living Spanish* (Crown Publishers), plus the first three selections of A. A. de del Río and E. H. Hespelt's *Lecturas hispánicas*, Book I (Dryden, 1946). Program D spent the remainder of the first semester studying the first fourteen lessons (including the third review) of S. A. Wofsy's *Beginning Spanish* (Macmillan, 1938), doing about half the exercises orally, the rest in writing. In the second semester the students in Program D studied lessons fifteen through forty of *Beginning Spanish*. In addition they read in class 43 pages of *Lecturas hispánicas*, Book I, and as outside reading, reported on in any way chosen by the teacher, some 30 more pages of the same volume and some 35 pages of A. A. de del Río and J. F. Shearer's *Lecturas hispánicas*, Book II (Dryden, 1947).

In the seventh week the students in Program E started the fourth selec-

tion in *Lecturas hispánicas*, Book I, and continued in that book through page 52 in the first semester. In the second semester they studied the fifteen chapters of E. W. Hesse's *Spanish Review Grammar* (American, 1942), doing the exercises approximately half orally, half in writing. They also read in class 70 pages in Book I and 37 pages in Book II of *Lecturas hispánicas*, and as outside reading, reported on through tests, reports, or other means at the teachers' discretion, 54 pages of Book I and 156 pages of Book II of *Lecturas hispánicas*.

Programs D and E took the same types of standard examinations as Programs A and B. But only one of their auditory comprehension tests, the University of Chicago Language Investigation Test given at mid-term of the second semester, is comparable with any taken by Programs A and B.⁵ Since the vocabularies of the two programs in both languages were so different through the first semester and since consequently it seemed impossible to make up an adequate common test, tests at mid-term and at the end of the first semester were compiled as follows: all odd-numbered items were aimed at one program, all even-numbered items at the other. There resulted three sets of scores for each of the two tests in each language: one for D, one for E, and a combined score, i. e. the score made by each student on the entire test. Since only the last offers grounds for comparing the two programs, though the comparison based on it must be considered suspect, only the combined scores are given. The scores on the French auditory comprehension tests were weighted in accordance with the procedure already described. Since the total scores on the Spanish auditory tests (D 187, E 182) were so close to those on the cooperative tests (D 188, E 183.5), we have not thought it necessary to weight the former. The unweighted scores in the French tests, which we give in parentheses for completeness, are of course not used in the statistical comparisons.

Following are the median scores of Programs D and E:

AUDITORY COMPREHENSION		
	<i>French</i>	<i>Spanish</i>
	<i>First Semester</i>	
Mid-term	Program D 40 (32) Program E 38 (30)	Program D 41 Program E 40
Final	Program D 29 (23) Program E 39 (31)	Program D 58 Program E 55
	<i>Second Semester</i>	
Mid-term	Program D 29 (23) Program E 30 (24)	Program D 26 Program E 29
Final	Program D 77 (61) Program E 72 (57)	Program D 62 Program E 58

⁵ Obviously it would have been desirable to prepare a standard examination in auditory comprehension for use in all three years. We had neither the time nor the means to do it.

<i>Cooperative Tests</i>		
	<i>French</i>	<i>Spanish</i>
	<i>First Semester</i>	
Mid-term	Program D 34	Program D 38
	Program E 33	Program E 40.5
Final	Program D 35	Program D 40
	Program E 34	Program E 40
	<i>French</i>	
	<i>Second Semester</i>	
Mid-term	Program D 49	Program D 52
	Program E 47	Program E 49
Final	Program D 61	Program D 58
	Program E 62	Program E 54

We consider the results of Programs E and D probably the most surprising of these three years. The reason why they seem so may need explaining. Those of us most concerned with planning the courses were aware in advance of the academic year that by its very nature Program E required of its teachers more initiative, planning and willingness to work than any of the other three programs we had tried. To test properly the potentialities of this kind of course would have required close supervision to the point of making up teaching materials for the entire course and planning each day's presentation. We were in no position to supply such materials or such supervision. Therefore we believe that, although the results of Program E have meaning, they are further from providing an accurate indication of the value of a method of teaching than are the results of any of the other programs described in this report.

We are not surprised that Program E's scores are not high, but we are surprised that they are as high as they are. The point can best be emphasized by presenting separately the two programs' scores on that part of the cooperative test dealing only with grammar, that phase of language study often considered to be the essence of "logic and orderliness." Following are the four median scores on the grammar part for each program in each language:

French: First Semester, Mid-term: D 38, E 38; Final D 37, E 39;
 Second Semester, Mid-term: D 45, E 41; Final: D 59, E 59;
 Spanish : First Semester, Mid-term: D 37, E 37; Final: D 42, E 38;
 Second Semester, Mid-term: D 49, E 44; Final: D 57, E 51.

We were not surprised that French E showed up better than Spanish E in grammar, since it gave more attention to inductive syntactic analysis. But we were very surprised that Program E in both languages gave results so close to those of Program D. It is sobering to see that in the most extreme instance, when Program D had spent nearly a full semester on gram-

mar, Program E, never having seen a grammar textbook and having been concerned with morphology and syntax only in the most unsystematic way, yet shows a two-point margin over D in French.

We are far from concluding that it does not matter what a teacher does in a language class. We do conclude that very little indeed is known demonstrably about some aspects of language teaching. We conclude further that these results, at least, hardly justify the belief that grammar *must* be taught "systematically," i.e. by the system implicit in almost all grammar textbooks. As a corollary it seems likely that, since more of the time spent in studying languages has been devoted to the "systematic" study of grammar than to any other aspect of language, more time has been wasted in grammar than in any other phase of language study. And one is reminded again that there is much more traditionalism in available textbooks than might be readily apparent.

In the work of 1948-1949 we tried, in the introduction to pronunciation, to find a tentative answer to this question: What are the relative efficiencies, in teaching pronunciation, of (1) imitation of the teacher, (2) phonetic symbols, (3) spelling, and (4) physiological descriptions of articulations? In each language each of the two Programs G and H was subdivided into two schemes: G-1 introduced pronunciation through spelling and the film-strip showing the organs of speech in the various articulations; G-2 used the film strip and phonetic symbols instead of spelling; H-1 used imitation and phonetic symbols; H-2 used imitation and spelling. All students in each language had access to the same listening sessions, used the same recorded materials, in whatever graphic form they were presented, and spent four weeks on the introduction to pronunciation. All students in French used Pierre Delattre's *French Speech Habits* (Holt, 1948), the text of which they saw in French spelling in G-1 and H-2, in phonetic symbols in G-2 and H-1. All students in Spanish used recorded materials modeled by E. F. Haden on Delattre's approach and spoken by C. M. Vance, a Cuban. The distribution of spelling and phonetic transcription followed the outline for French indicated above. At the end of four weeks, and again at the end of the first semester, all students in each language took auditory comprehension tests, the same for both programs, of which the median scores follow:

FOUR-WEEK TEST

French (315 students)			Spanish (470 students)		
Median	No. students	Program	No. students	Median	
62	54	G-1	132	79	
64	98	G-2	111	77	
63	152	G	243	78	
63	103	H-1	105	76	
55.5	60	H-2	122	74	
59	163	H	227	75	

FIRST SEMESTER FINAL				
French (266)		Spanish (424 students)		
29.5	42	G-1	116	39.5
33	87	G-2	99	36
32	129	G	215	38
23.5	86	H-1	94	33
32	51	H-2	115	30.5
25	137	H	209	32

Of course the tests do not allow comparison of the scores in French with those in Spanish, nor of the scores on the final with those on the four-weeks test. The scores which make up H-2 are revealing. That program comprised four sections taught by two instructors. On the first test its median of 55.5 is the lowest of the four subgroups in French. But if only the two sections of one of the instructors had been counted, its median would have been 76! Twelve points higher than the median of the highest classification, G-2 with 64. H-2's score is second on the final. But if the same teacher's two sections had been counted alone, the median would have been 34, again the highest. And other similar instances could be cited, from both French and Spanish. These are illuminating examples of the kind of uncontrollable influences which undermine all such experimentation. They are also a strong invitation to skepticism, for it is extremely difficult to know when it is a specific method, and when it is the teacher who uses the method, that is being tested. *Descriptions of programs*, try as one might to be specific, *have always been in terms so vague that they referred adequately to only a portion of the variable influences on which the results depend.*

For statistical reasons, also, we need to be especially cautious in interpreting the results of this four-weeks experiment. If we take the widest variation between the four schemes in each language for each test, then take the mean of those extreme variations, we find the average of widest difference is 8. By adding all the median scores made by the four schemes and taking their mean, we find the average median for all tests is 50.2. The greatest average variation between the schemes, then, is only 16 per cent of the average median. But the picture is even vaguer than that, for the median of medians in the first group of French scores, 62.5, is only 1.5 points from the highest median; that in the second group, 31, is only 2 points from the highest median; that in the first group of Spanish scores is only 2.5 points from the highest; and that in the second group is but 5 points from the highest. Clearly it would be reckless to draw categorical conclusions from such data. But these results tend to support the general belief that the teaching of pronunciation is less difficult in Spanish than in French; for the average greatest variation between the different techniques in Spanish, 7, is less than in French, 9.

The clearest picture is formed by listing the results in descending order as follows, G:

Four-weeks Test	French 2, 3, 1, 4
	Spanish 1, 2, 3, 4
Final Test	French 2, 4, 1, 3
	Spanish 1, 2, 3, 4

With the reservations already mentioned several inferences may be hazarded. First, a physiological description of speech articulations is helpful in teaching auditory comprehension in both French and Spanish. Second, in French it seems to be advantageous to use phonetic symbols, but in Spanish to use standard orthography from the start. Third, dependence on imitation alone is not advisable. This last inference is strengthened by our awareness that very much use of such imitation was made in both G-1 and G-2 and that most of our teachers have not had sufficient training in phonetics or experience with visual aids to make most effective use of those techniques.

Programs G and H were designed to answer a second, more general question: What significant differences will appear by contrasting a program (G) which places much emphasis on oral drill and has an exhaustive grammatical introduction with a program (H) which goes from a quick survey of a brief grammar text to a relatively large amount of rapid reading?

After the four weeks on pronunciation the students in French Program G spent the remainder of the first semester studying Julian Harris and André Lévêque's *Conversational French* (Holt, 1946) through page 132 and Book I of *Lectures françaises* through page 49. In the same period the students in French Program H studied all of Swanson's *Concise French Grammar* and read through page 73 of *Lectures françaises*, Book I. Immediately after the first four weeks, of course, separate listening sessions were provided for G and H. In the second semester French Program G studied *Conversational French* through page 352. The students throughout were expected to make extremely thorough preparation of the assignments in *Conversational French*, aiming to memorize as much as possible. They also completed Book I of *Lectures françaises* and the first 113 pages of Book II. Little if any time was spent in class on these readings, the students giving an account of them through reports or short tests. In the second semester French Program H studied the remaining part of Book I of *Lectures françaises* and 228 pages of Book II, and outside of class read 200 pages which the students chose themselves and on which they reported in individual conferences.

In Spanish in the fifth week of the first semester Program G began to study D. D. Walsh's *Introductory Spanish* (Norton, 1946) and Book I of *Lecturas hispánicas*. During the semester it completed the first 13 lessons of the former and 77 pages of the latter. In the second semester its students finished *Introductory Spanish* through lesson twenty-five, studied from page 151 through page 207 in Book I of *Lecturas hispánicas*, and read 80 pages from Book II. In the first semester Spanish Program H studied all 30 lessons

of S. E. Leavitt and S. A. Stoudemire's *Elements of Spanish* (Holt, 1935), all of the same editors' *Vamos a leer* (Holt, 1944) except the last selection (a total of 172 pages), and the first 67 pages of Book I of *Lecturas hispánicas*. In the second semester Program H studied pages 71 through 207 of Book I and 240 pages of Book II of *Lecturas hispánicas*, and read 200 pages of Spanish outside of class, under the same conditions as French Program H.

Scores of Programs G and H on the two auditory comprehension tests in the first semester have already been analyzed. The two programs made these median scores in the auditory comprehension tests in the second semester:

		MID-TERM	
<i>Program G</i>			<i>Program H</i>
French	18		21
Spanish	27		27.5
		FINAL	
French	38		37
Spanish	46		49

Following are the scores of both programs in both languages on the co-operative tests through mid-term of the second semester:

		FIRST SEMESTER	
		<i>Mid-Term</i>	<i>Final</i>
French	G 34; H 41		G 37; H 42
Spanish	G 41; H 44		G 45; H 47
		SECOND SEMESTER	
		<i>Mid-Term</i>	<i>Final</i>
French	G 54; H 60		G 59; H 65
Spanish	G 51; H 54		G 58; H 57

In the comparison of Programs G and H more than in any other part of our three years of work we felt the lack of reliable, exhaustive tests. The main lack, of course, was of objective tests of oral production, of the ability to speak the language. Much of the time in Program G was spent in oral drill for the sake of fluent speech. That is a perfectly justifiable aim, but unfortunately it is not measured with anything like adequacy by any of our tests. Granted, there is a positive correlation between the ability to speak and the ability to understand the spoken language, and Program H in all but one instance made higher scores than Program G on the auditory comprehension tests. But it seems certain that that correlation is *not a two-way proposition*. If the student can speak, he can understand, but it does not follow at all that if he can understand, he can speak. Consequently our class room experience leads us to consider the results of Program G as considerably better than they appear in the above statistics.

In order to evaluate the contribution made by our three-year experimen-

tation to professional knowledge of language teaching, it is necessary to refer to the context in which it was conceived and carried on. The wave of interest in foreign languages and their teaching which was created by the war began even before the end of the war to cause deep changes in college teaching of languages. The desire to improve language teaching spread and grew stronger immediately after the war and is still widely felt, as even a cursory acquaintance with the professional literature makes plain. This feeling, as was natural and proper, was shared by the Department of Romance Languages at the University of Texas. But some members of the department believed that it was not possible, in the present state of our profession, to accept as the "best" course any elementary presentation of a language. We were convinced that the only valid basis on which to judge a course is the results of the students trained in it, and that the only gauge by which to measure such results is the results of comparable groups of students trained in other courses. Therefore we proposed that the Department set up a program of experimentation permitting the comparison of different techniques for two purposes: first, to gather specific information to help us plan a "standard" course for our own use after the program; and second, to make what we hoped might be a worthwhile contribution to professional knowledge of language teaching. We offer now some statements toward which we think the foregoing results point.

First of all, it seems amply clear that very considerable differences in presentation may not yield corresponding differences in results. The differences in results, that is, may be very much slighter than those in methods, or they may take forms apparently quite at variance with those in methods. And we should not be fetishistic about this use of the word results. In this context it should be taken as equal to "the scores made by students on certain very inadequate tests; presumably they indicate very roughly what the student may be supposed to have learned in certain undefined aspects of the language." It is with those reservations, and many more, that we have tried to interpret the results of our work.

Within the limits of that skeptical attitude we think it is worth while to repeat the specific indications of method to which we have referred in the course of this report.

1. Listening sessions seem to be of considerable value. The student gains by hearing and repeating the materials he has been assigned for study. It should be remembered that because of shortage of space and supervision capable of inducing active student participation, our students failed to take full advantage of the listening sessions, but even so the partial use of them seemed to make an appreciable difference.

2. We believe that emphasis on formal grammar—we are not prepared to state within what limits—is of very doubtful profit, at least in the first year. Since so much time is usually spent on grammar in the first year, it

follows that an appreciable fraction of the first year might more profitably be spent on something else.

3. We believe that the vague goal called the "oral aim" remains a legitimate purpose of elementary teaching in college and that it may even deserve the major emphasis. But these results seem to show that we know little about how to attain that aim, for emphasis on oral work did not consistently show proportionate improvement in achievement. In this connection we believe the evaluations contained in this report coincide in general with those of the Committee for the Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language, though we are *far* from agreeing with all the inferences drawn by that committee.

4. These results indicate that the understanding of spoken French and Spanish is best acquired if the student is taught pronunciation through the presentation in physiological terms of the foreign articulations. They lead us to think that the student's understanding of French profits by his approaching the language via phonetic symbols, while in Spanish it is apparently advantageous to confront the student from the start with conventional spelling.

By far the most important result of our three-years experiment, we think, is to indicate how little is known about the process of teaching-learning a second language in the classroom. Now any section of a report like this may fairly be conceived as an equation: a certain procedure equals certain results. The results appear in the guise of accuracy, for they are stated as numbers with all the "scientific" trappings of statistics. But it requires only the most casual analysis of what those numbers represent to see how misleading they may be. They cannot pretend to give us an adequate picture of the state of the student's knowledge of the language. The left-hand side of the equation is more honest, for it cannot even pretend to accuracy. If that side were sufficiently expanded, if it were made as a course description detailed enough even to approach accuracy, it would fill a volume. Clearly when we try to devise the ideal course and base it on generalizations drawn from such equations, we are fumbling in the dark. We are in the position of the doctor shown in a recent cartoon who said: "Let's be scientific. Let's examine all the evidence, then let's guess what we ought to do."

Our theoretical knowledge of language teaching is so deficient that it is absolutely impossible to base on it alone, with any feeling of certainty, a plan for the "best" college course in a foreign language. If that were not true, if anyone *did* have such knowledge, he could predict accurately the results of any course devised provided he had an adequate description of it and of the circumstances surrounding it. Such predictions remain impossible.

But all the above strictures on our knowledge, or rather our ignorance, must be interpreted with care. For only the most obtuse, the most gratui-

tously captious, or the most lackadaisical would say that for those reasons there is no use in carrying on cautiously experimental programs in the teaching of languages. Any procedure of improving our work is worthwhile, and we are convinced that such experimentation as we have attempted holds the best promise of leading to improvement in our work.

The problem of language teaching may be considered in either of two ways: as a science, in which case its investigation might conceivably lead to new knowledge, but knowledge which would lie in the area of psychology or of linguistics; or as an art, a procedure, in which case the only knowledge sought is that concerning the relationship between the *method* of presentation of the subject and the *results*. The two are not entirely separable, but clearly they are far from being the same thing. The area of overlap is perhaps chiefly made up of conjectures formed on the basis of psychological and linguistic theory concerning what results are likely from certain procedures. But that is a very foggy area and it seems adequately demonstrated that such conjectures cannot be relied on. That is not to say, however, that we must not make use of both psychological and linguistic theory; rather, we must depend on them constantly. But we cannot depend on them to give us satisfactory answers to our questions on what results may be expected of what teaching procedures. We must depend on them not for answers, but *for help in framing the proper questions*. For the validity of any answers proposed must depend inevitably on the kind of questions asked, since questions arise from assumptions, which in this case have not been subjected to adequate criticism. And there is strong evidence that at least some of our groping is due to the impropriety of our questions. Perhaps the best evidence of this lack of skeptical criticism is to be found in the large number of clichés which becloud so many articles on the subject of language teaching. One is quite at a loss when one tries to visualize or reconstruct specifically just what is being referred to by such phrases as "oral method," "reading method," "the contrast between active and passive use of the language," "speech habits," etc. It is quite true that it is hard to write about the teaching of language and avoid completely the use of such stereotypes. The difficulty is that in too much of our professional literature such mythical entities are the only beings encountered. The discussion is kept on a high level of abstractions, and very complex, unequal abstractions, with no effort to relate them to the real situations or things which might give them the only validity they can have. Too often the articles do not even show awareness that such efforts are necessary.

The only way which has so far become known to reach conclusions of demonstrable validity on language teaching is to draw them from controlled experience, namely experimentation. With all its faults, and they are many, experimentation remains the only effective means of achieving progress in

techniques of teaching foreign languages. But the difficulties of such work are so very great, the work involved is so time-consuming and so tedious, that we easily understand why it is not often attempted.

Experimentation offers the only effective means of bridging the gap between, on the one hand, the abstractions in which our questions are phrased and the hypotheses on which they are based, and, on the other hand, the specific knowledge we hope to reach. We believe that our own effort at the University of Texas has been a worth-while step, taken gropingly, but with full consciousness, toward such knowledge.

RECOMMENDATIONS

We feel that the experimentation of these three years has been very rewarding in the two areas in which we hoped for profit, i.e. specific information on which to base a standard course at the University of Texas, and information of more general value to the entire profession on the relative merits of some techniques of teaching languages. This is a fitting place to express formally our appreciation to the University Administration for financial support and to the members of the Department of Romance Languages for their helpfulness.

We present first our recommendations for a standard introductory course in French and Spanish:

1. We recommend that both French 406-407 and Spanish 406-407 be directed by a committee of five regular members of the Department.

2. We recommend that immediately after its appointment each Spring the new committee choose a supervisor for first year French and one for first year Spanish for the following year.

3. We recommend that the committee and supervisors be responsible:

- (a) for planning each Spring the courses for the following year;
- (b) for selecting each Spring the textbooks for the following year;
- (c) for continuous coordination of the first year work, including the various aspects of teaching methods and testing.

4. To accomplish this coordination we recommend that the committee and supervisors meet at least twice each semester.

5. While we are acutely aware that the existing specimens are imperfect, we believe it is very important to continue the use of examinations which have wide distribution and are used over a period of time to establish what specifically must be expected of students in given circumstances. With all their faults, such examinations remain the most nearly accurate way of making valid comparisons, of evaluating the effectiveness of our work. Personal estimates cannot possibly claim any validity, for the problems involved are so numerous, so vague and undefined, perhaps even not suspected, that any estimate which is merely personal can claim only a per-

sonal hearing. Therefore we recommend that the committee and supervisors administer each semester:

(a) at mid-term either a departmental examination or a standard published examination;

(b) at the end of the semester a standard written examination and a departmental or standard test in aural comprehension.

6. We recommend that the committee and supervisors organize a seminar in teaching procedures to be given each Fall, as much of it as possible before classes start. Teaching fellows would be required to attend and others who expect to teach first year work would be urged to take part in the seminar.

7. We believe that we, like many colleges in the country, have tended to place undue emphasis on the study of grammar out of context, i.e. as a kind of "logical" study, commonly referred to as "formal grammar," in which one *talks about* the "rules" of the language instead of exemplifying them through *exercises in* the spoken and written language. Without attempting to define the proper limits, we think that kind of study should be decreased sharply.

8. We believe we ought to keep the oral emphasis which in general we have tried to maintain since the introduction of 406 and 407. Again we think it would be unwise to try to stipulate in detail what form that emphasis ought to take. In our opinion, however, there should be a period of not more than four weeks in each language (it ought to be less in Spanish than in French) devoted primarily to the physiological presentation of pronunciation, during which instruction in French should make use of phonetic symbols, while teachers of Spanish would be left free to use phonetic symbols if they chose.

9. We think that the listening sessions have proved their value, in spite of lack of space and lack of proper supervision. We recommend therefore that provision be made to continue and expand them with these two minimal aims: First, there should be available on a full-time basis four rooms of adequate size, one for each semester of the first year in the two languages, where students would be expected to attend supervised drills in preparation of their regular assignments. (Such provision is contemplated in the new Modern Languages Building.) Second, at least one well-equipped place should be available where students with special interests or special problems might come for individual help. We regard it as highly desirable that the listening sessions be integrated into the regular courses. We think that the most effective device for achieving that purpose is to have teachers of the first year courses share in the supervision of the listening sessions.

10. We believe that some outside reading of the student's own choosing

is desirable in the first year of French and Spanish. We think that if the Department is to take advantage of the profit to be gained from such assignments, it must build up, in a place easily accessible to students and staff, its own library. Probably the collection of books ought to consist mainly of texts edited for classroom use, with many duplicates.

11. We recommend that for the academic year 1950-51, one section of the following program be tried for one year, after which, if student demand and the operation of the course warrant it, it might be continued as a permanent course: A course giving eight semester hours' credit, covering the work now done in 406 and 407 and meeting ten hours a week for one semester. We make this recommendation for the following reasons:

(a) we believe there are some students who would like to absolve the language requirement in one year;

(b) we think there may be a few students who believe before starting the language that they will major in it and who would be glad to enter advanced courses earlier than is possible now;

(c) on theoretical grounds it would be both very interesting and worth while to be in a position to compare the results gained by such a course with those of our present first-year course;

(d) from an administrative point of view such a course would fit conveniently into our present organization.

12. We believe the committee and supervisors should encourage individual instructors to experiment with techniques of teaching and testing. For we think one of the greatest benefits of the work of these three years has been an increased awareness on the part of some of our teachers of the problems of language teaching and of the challenge to ingenuity they offer. It would be a great loss if that attitude were in any way discouraged.

13. We recommend strongly that the Department maintain its present maximum of twenty students in any section of a first-year course.

For the Committee on 406-407

D. LEE HAMILTON

ERNEST F. HADEN

University of Texas

*The Contribution of the Study of Literature to World Understanding**

INTERNATIONALISM is now being increasingly stressed by the educational systems in many parts of the United States and indications of such a trend are becoming more and more apparent. Since internationalism is, by definition, a political philosophy which stresses the solidarity and mutual dependence of all nations, it seems that one of the primary problems to consider is that of establishing effective communication between the various nations concerned. In order to work out policies of mutual cooperation and understanding between prospective United Nations, with the possibility of achieving a foundation for world harmony and peace, the barriers of language must first be conquered. Thus, on first analysis, it would seem that the confusion of languages which reigned at Babel is still one of the greatest problems confronting internationalism today. Of course our language departments in unison with this vogue or trend which at long last offers them an opportunity of being recognized at their full value, publicize the fact that they hold one of the vital keys to the solution of internationalism. For instance the theme of the 1947 Foreign Language Conference at Northwestern State College of Natchitoches, Louisiana, was: "Foreign Languages for Living in One World." Many professors advocate increased teaching of Foreign Languages and "better international relationships through student-teacher exchanges." In an article thus entitled, published in the March 1948 issue of the *Modern Language Journal*, we read the following:

We must give our students an insight into the manners, habits and customs of the people whose language we are teaching, thus developing an understanding of peoples based upon a knowledge of their way of life and an appreciation of their culture gained through the medium of a study of their language . . . Before engaging in trade, business must learn, first of all, something of the countries with which it will trade. Latin Americans are a proud people—proud of their culture and heritage.

* A talk given recently to a State College Faculty Audience composed mainly of teachers of English and Foreign Languages and Literatures. The specific subject to be discussed was: "Can Comparative Literature Studies Further the Understanding of Internationalism?" The author, it may be added, had no choice whatsoever as to subject matter or participation. It was a "command performance" designed to prove to a skeptical administration that literature could serve some pragmatic purpose.

But above all they are shrewd business men. All other things being equal, they will trade with nations that understand and respect them. In the past, business has made a great mistake in not learning more of the cultural background of South America and, above all, in not learning its languages . . . in not understanding the people and in not learning the language, United States business has suffered in Latin America . . . All German, English and Italian trade representatives were required to have a reading and speaking knowledge of Spanish and an understanding of their culture and customs. On the other hand, I found very few United States business men in South America who could speak Spanish or who were interested in the people. Those business men formed a close knit colony and had no dealings, other than pure business, with the people. The people greatly resented this attitude on the part of our business men, and our trade relations and dealings with them suffered greatly . . . One of the prime causes of war is misunderstanding and ignorance or the other people . . . We are thoroughly convinced that, if we can promote better understanding between the youth of the world, the first milestone in the elimination of war will have been passed.¹

Nothing can give us a better insight into the social pattern of a foreign nation than learning its language. In the words of a social psychologist:

A person learns a new language and, as we say, gets a new soul. He puts himself into the attitude of those that make use of that language. He cannot read its literature, cannot converse with those that belong to that community without taking on its peculiar attitudes. He becomes in that sense a different individual. You cannot convey a language as a pure abstraction; you inevitably in some degree convey also the life that lies behind it. And this result builds itself into relationship with the organized attitudes of the individual who gets this language and inevitably brings about a readjustment of views.²

There is no doubting the value of learning languages as a means of communication between various nations. However, certain qualifications must be made which tend to show that the study of foreign languages may be one of the principal keys, but is not necessarily *the only* key to international understanding.

First of all no one person can learn all languages and, amongst those that do learn one or several languages, the majority will never learn them well enough to develop a sufficient degree of fluency enabling them, for instance, to read painlessly and with enjoyment novels written in a foreign language. This also brings up the problem that our leaders, political, diplomatic or military are usually administrators, executives, who although they deal directly with foreign nations, have neither the inclination, nor the time, nor perhaps the aptitude to learn a foreign language. (I should hate to think of our political leaders further handicapped by studying Russian at this late

¹ Melvin G. Nydegger, "Better International Relationships through Student-Teacher Exchanges," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXII (1948), 184-189.

² George H. Mead, *Mind, Self & Society*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1946, p. 283.

stage.) It appears, therefore, as though the fluent knowledge of a foreign language is confined to a minority. As a matter of fact, when one observes the rôle of the language specialist or translator in World War II and in the Foreign Service today, it might be likened to that of a stenographer or typist in any large office: in other words the language specialist is often only a staff employee of minor standing who performs a mechanical job and who serves as a mere tool to the executive who drafts the policies and makes the decisions. All those who served as language specialists in the last war and are willing to forego a *miles gloriosus* account of their activities, will corroborate that statement, while another proof can be found in the weighting of foreign language tests in Foreign Service examinations.

When studying the relative importance of languages to international understanding, we may also observe that frequently language is not the only barrier between two countries. Other elements are present which seem to prevent harmonious understanding between two nations and thus hinder the furtherance of internationalism. An example of this type is afforded us by our relations with England during the last war. We had from three to four million American soldiers stationed in England before D-day. It was indeed a unique opportunity for a large group of Americans and Englishmen to become personally acquainted, to learn to understand one another. On the whole, however, the average American soldier did not understand nor did he learn to like the English. War conditions, rationing, black-outs, the stoic way of life of the English repelled many of our soldiers and their dislike of England seemed to be in direct proportion to the ever widening gap between American and British standards of living and comfort, or, I dare say, in direct proportion to the degree with which Great Britain had to tighten its belt because of war time restrictions. Many Americans preferred France with its generally and outwardly careless attitude towards war, its seemingly flippant disregard of the consequences of German occupation, and its willingness to resort to black market in order to prevent tightening their belts. That, at least, was the general procedure followed in Paris and Paris to many Americans represented all of France. In the final analysis, however, Germany, which of course had managed to maintain the highest living standard in Europe at the expense of other countries and which reminded most Americans of the comforts of home, appealed to many of them paradoxically enough more than any other country. The same phenomenon repeated itself in Switzerland, for, the less material standards in a foreign country were below American standards, the more such country appealed to our soldiers. In conclusion, many American soldiers developed the greatest dislike towards the one nation which was closest to them from the point of view of language, namely England.

An important problem of internationalism is to determine what causes such reactions on the part of the nationals of one country towards another.

What causes such prejudice, differences of opinion and tastes? Besides the numerous lesser divergences of opinion and taste which may just as well occur within the borders of one country as between the peoples of several countries, are there any general factors, distinguishing elements peculiar to one country and not to another and whose respective presence or absence causes such differences of opinions and taste? Now, if such distinguishing factors exist, can they be found, observed and studied in the literary works of the various countries? Do international differences and similarities leave some sort of an imprint on the literature of the people concerned, some sort of "fossil-like clue" which may be studied in a scholarly and scientific manner? The archeologist is able to discover how a past civilization lived by examining some of its scattered remnants. Is it possible for the student of literature to find in literary works concrete evidence to the effect that between two nations definite differences of thinking and of feeling exist? The answer to all those questions is yes.

Most anybody will admit that by reading some of the representative authors of one country, one can learn a great deal about its people and their way of thinking. For instance, some time ago a magazine article stated that one of our Russian experts in the State Department had read all well-known Russian novels of Tolstoi, Turgenev and Dostoievsky in order to learn about the Russian mentality and claimed to have derived practically all he knew from such reading. How often have we or some one we know read a foreign novel or seen a foreign film and subsequently commented that they were so very different from American novels and films. But just what is this difference? We shall endeavor to give an example of how the comparative study of literary works may bring out such differences between two nations and thus further the understanding of internationalism. As we know, it often happens that an author of one country plagiarizes or borrows from an author of another country. Thus during the seventeenth century, when Spanish literature had reached a peak and enjoyed universal prestige, French authors were not too proud to borrow occasionally from their Spanish neighbors. They often borrowed freely and to a certain extent adapted the Spanish subject matter to the French taste, in other words, instead of translating the Spanish original literally, they adapted it by the method known as *contaminatio*. For instance the French dramatic author Corneille based his *Cid* on a Spanish original by Guillén de Castro. What is always surprising in this connection, is that so many critics often claim that the French adaptation is *better* than the Spanish original, just as there are critics who claim that some of the German translations of Shakespeare are better than the original English, and the author of these lines was even told by a professor of French that some French translation of *Don Quixote* was far superior to the Spanish original. We must always view with sus-

picion such judgments concerning the respective value of the original and the foreign adaptation as being unwarranted and unfair. Such judgments are generally due to prejudice, to a lack of international understanding and the critics who emit them are evaluating national peculiarities and characteristics instead of simply analyzing them objectively. It should occur to us that the differences between the original and the adaptation might simply be due to the fact that the adaptor, with an innate feeling of what would please his public, changed certain truly foreign elements of his original because he knew that those elements were peculiar to, let us say, the Spanish taste and would only shock the French taste. In order to prove this specifically, let us choose a Spanish play by Calderón which has been adapted by sixteen other authors, some of them rather well known. The play is *El astrólogo fingido* or *The Feigned Astrologer*.³ It is the story of a young Spanish nobleman who is unable to gain the love of a young lady. She claims to be insensitive to love. The nobleman, however, finds out that she is deceiving him and really loves another young man. In order to take revenge and perhaps to trick her into loving him, the hapless lover claims to be an astrologer with supernatural powers and deceives everyone else into believing this. He creates many unreal situations which the others believe to be real, but he realizes that he cannot gain the love of the young girl. The fact that through his trickery he can fool everyone else into believing anything he wishes them to believe and yet cannot accomplish what he wants most, namely to make the girl love him, causes him endless frustration and makes it impossible for him to continue his deception. He therefore admits that he was but a fake astrologer and loses the girl definitely to his rival.

An analysis of this Spanish play with respect to plot, social and psychological background, semantics, rhetorical idiosyncrasies and characterization, reveals that *El astrólogo fingido* contains all the elements found in other Spanish works of the same period, namely: a taste for baroque, an approach to life dominated by casuistry, a cult for social honor, a constant frantic endeavor to distinguish reality from illusion. (This latter point, the difficulty to distinguish reality from illusion is well illustrated in such works as *Don Quixote* and *Life is a Dream*.) The Spanish word *burla* which means deception, gull, trickery appears constantly in this play both as a word and as a concept, which it does in all other literary works of the Spanish Golden Age.⁴ Let us also remember that a play is usually written for the enjoyment of a large audience and therefore reflects to a great extent the taste and opinions of the public.

When we study the various French adaptations of the play, by either

³ Pedro Calderón de la Barca, *Comedias* (B.A.E., vol. VII), Madrid, 1848, pp. 573 ff.

⁴ See my article, "The *burla* in Calderón's *El astrólogo fingido*," *Philological Quarterly*, XXVIII (1948), 241-263.

Mlle de Scudéry,⁵ d'Ouille,⁶ or Thomas Corneille,⁷ we immediately notice a difference in:

(1) *Plot*: D'Ouille assigns the part of the astrologer to the valet, not to the nobleman. It would be beneath a French gentleman ("*honnête homme*") to deceive others in this manner, especially with the ultimate purpose of gaining the lady's love under false pretence. In Corneille the rôle of astrologer is played by the nobleman but he just does it for fun, not to deceive anyone seriously. In fact he is never really exposed and the play ends with some of the other characters still believing he is an astrologer.

(2) *Style*: The word "deceive" occurs sometimes as a translation of *burla* but not very often, much less frequently than in the Spanish original. In Corneille the word "deceive" does not occur at all anymore.

(3) *Characterization*: In the Spanish play the astrologer is a tragically complex character, who knows he is not loved but is unwilling to admit defeat. As the Spaniards say, *da coces contra el aguijón*, he rams his head against a stone wall, he does not submit to fate, therefore, like a Don Quixote he is frustrated. In the French adaptation the characterization is superficial. The astrologer is no longer a frustrated lover, a harassed young man who is constantly aware that he is deceiving everyone else. The nervous tension is gone. We also note that the sentiment of honor is a shallow, capricious feeling, no longer a social factor as it was in the Spanish play. And yet many critics such as Arpad Steiner⁸ and H. C. Lancaster⁹ have claimed that Corneille had enriched the plot with psychological elements. Such prejudiced criticism is entirely unfounded. The French characters are much less complex than the Spanish ones. Just to take one of the adaptations, Corneille followed Calderón closely and yet produced an original work, which impresses as being purely French and somehow very different from the Spanish play. Corneille used the method of *contaminatio* transforming certain details which he feels will shock the French taste. He shies away from violent contrasts and is eager to present a clear, simple, unified play. He especially stresses unity of action to satisfy the French passion for clarity. In Spain the theory was that the best dramatic method was the one which best pleased the people. In France the authors followed Boileau's precept: "We shall not say, trusting the people, that a poetic work is good because it pleases them, unless the cultured also are content with it." This explains why some historians tell us that Spanish plays had a too distinctly Spanish flavor about them to be appreciated by the French public. Adaptors

⁵ Madeleine de Scudéry, *Ibrahim ou l'Illustre Bassa*, Paris, 1641, pp. 105-242.

⁶ Antoine Le Métel Seigneur d'Ouille, *Jodelet Astrologue*, Paris, 1646.

⁷ Thomas Corneille, *Le Feint Astrologue*, Paris, 1651.

⁸ "Calderón's *Astrólogo fingido* in France," *Modern Philology*, XXIV (1926), 27-30.

⁹ *A History of French Dramatic Literature in the Seventeenth Century*, Part Two, Vol. II, The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1932, pp. 437 ff.

had to eliminate those truly Spanish elements by a free adaptation before they could be presented to the French public. The flexible Spanish play simultaneously served as a vehicle for the heroic (hero-tragic character), the burlesque (clash between reality and unreality) and precious rhetoric, all of which are expressions of a same taste. The heroic and the burlesque are both elements of the precious, the heroic being the tragic aspect of it and the burlesque being the humorous aspect of it. Preciosity is a vehicle for both the tragic or delicate and the humorous or coarse in Spain. French rules of clarity and good taste never allowed them to condone the mixture of tragedy and comedy, of heroic and burlesque. We may thus conclude by saying that French authors levied heavily upon Calderón with respect to subject matter and even many details of style. However, certain characteristic thought processes, a certain philosophy of life, the color or emphasis placed on certain words, all of which were present in the Spanish, seldom reached or influenced the French adaptations. It is this absence of certain elements peculiar to a foreign taste and mentality which proves the existence of definite specific national tendencies. Dryden adapted the same Spanish play to English Restoration taste under the title of *The Mock Astrologer or An Evening's Love*. He himself shows how he adapted a literary work to suit the English national taste of his period when he writes: "I confess my chief endeavors are to delight the age in which I live. If the humor of this be for low comedy, small accidents and raillery, I will force my genius to obey it." His adaptation shows this trend very effectively. The German Ludwig Tieck, on the other hand, used the same play in two of his short stories, namely *Die Wundersüchtigen* (1829) and *Der Jahrmarkt* (1831), and in one of them especially his astrologer is the same frustrated hero we encountered in Spain. As a matter of fact, after he realizes that his trickery does not accomplish anything, he commits suicide, a romantic and German solution of the problem. It is rather significant to note that the German adaptation is the only one where a suicide occurs. In the German adaptation the words meaning *deception*, etc. . . . also occur frequently as they did in the Spanish original.

We have thus tried to show that the comparative study of literary works from authors of different nationalities can help determine objectively certain national trends and characteristics. Of course, only a trained student can carry out this type of research, besides, the conclusions arrived at are difficult to evaluate and to apply in the domain of politics. It would be most dangerous and inaccurate to generalize on the basis of such limited findings, as the above, to the extent of trying to define the national character of a nation, especially when scholarly investigations have proven that there is no such thing as an invariable national character.

¹⁰ Ernst Robert Curtius, "Antike Rhetorik und Vergleichende Literaturwissenschaft," *Comparative Literature*, 1 (1949), 40.

Der Glaube an einen invariablen Nationalcharakter impliciert aber ausserdem einen *circulus vitiosus* und ist schon aus diesem Grunde nicht annehmbar. Woher kennen wir den Charakter einer Nation? Wir lesen ihn ab aus ihren geistigen Schöpfungen. Das "Wesen" einer Nation wird aus der Literatur abgeleitet und in begriffliche Formeln gebracht. Dann werden die Begriffe hypostasiert und in dieser Form zur Interpretation der Literatur verwendet. Man holt den Nationalcharakter aus einer Schachtel heraus, in der man ihn vorher versteckt hatte. Für das Verständnis ist damit nichts geleistet.¹⁰

The problem is now: How can a department of literature offer the average student courses in foreign literatures with the purpose of giving such students a better understanding of the problems and mentalities of other nations? And: Must the average student read foreign works in the original or will translations do? Here again common sense tells us that it is better for a student to read a translation than nothing at all. We all know that no translation can take the place of the original. However, since it is impossible for us to know all languages, we would not only restrict the scope of our international understanding but also of our entire culture if we read only those works which we are able to read in the original. The main point is that foreign literature courses should bring out certain salient national characteristics as evidenced by the literary production of the various nations. Teachers can bring out some essential traits of the foreign nations and thus give their students the assurance that they possess an insight into, a clue to the mentality of foreign nations. Then, when they come in contact with such nations they will feel that they know something about them and understand them better. Any previous contact, no matter how vague or remote, helps people get started on the road to mutual understanding. Therefore, by all means, let us teach the layman something about the literature of other nations. But let us not bore him to tears with dry facts; let us rather apply the method of delightful teaching and trick him into knowing and understanding a few essentials about other countries. This will further our contribution to internationalism and it seems that in any case we could not in this manner do less for world understanding than our diplomats are doing right now.

MAX OPPENHEIMER, JR.

*Washington University,
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The German Schools and Democracy

An American Observer in German Classrooms*

THERE were times as I sat in classrooms in a Gymnasium in Stuttgart and in the Oberschule in Ludwigsburg when I realized that I had become quite unaware of the complete lack of adornment in the rooms, the inadequate space and light, and the rows of uncomfortable benches, which had made such a dismal impression on me upon entering the room. I had become so engrossed in what was going on that I had even forgotten that I had come to observe and analyze. In short, I had forgotten myself and my "mission" and become infected by the spontaneous interest of the young pupils. Once or twice I caught myself, to my own embarrassment, with an unreasonable urge to raise my hand and wave it as wildly as some of them were doing, when I thought I knew the answer. The results obtained by some of the teachers, in spite of the lack of proper equipment and material facilities, were admirable, and might well be envied by some of my more ambitious colleagues here in the U.S.A.

Of course, I did not get the feeling of taking part in this way in all the classes I visited. It was particularly strong in the classes in the early semesters of English in both the larger school in Stuttgart and the smaller one in Ludwigsburg, although I was impressed by the way in which the class in elementary biology in Ludwigsburg was conducted, without any trace of charts or models, which we consider so all important. The pupils had been asked to bring to class any specimens of plants which they thought might belong to a certain "family." They were asked why they had decided that their contribution fell within that group. Their observations were checked by other members of the class and the instructor. Connections between plant and animal life were drawn and the science of biology was correlated incidentally with other sciences. The scientific approach and deductive reasoning were evident though not stressed as such.

I recall too the class in physics in the Stuttgart Gymnasium (the course was given without textbooks), in which a simple radio sending and receiving apparatus was demonstrated and explained. I can truthfully say that I came closer to understanding the functioning of the radio than I ever have or probably ever shall.

There was a class in German in Ludwigsburg, approximately equivalent

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to senior English here, which made a lasting impression on me. The class was reading and discussing poetry of the romantic period—poems by Eichendorff. Students and teacher showed a sincere appreciation of the feeling in the whimsical and at the same time nostalgic import of the verses. The symbolism of the words used was analyzed, and correlation with other products of the romantic period in German and in English literature pointed out. And so the content was in itself of living interest even to an observer.

What impressed me most, however, was the evidence of mutual reactions in the group brought out in the discussion between student and teacher and among the students themselves. I could not help making comparisons with what might take place in a class in the United States working on the same type of material. It might so easily lose its charm and become either over-sentimental or meaningless, or even a bit laughable to our adolescents of 17 or 18 years of age, geared to comic strips and gangster tales on screen and radio. There seemed to be among these young people an entire lack of self-consciousness in the discussion and evidence of sincere personal appreciation for the human and universal emotions expressed by the poet, much as times have changed. There was a freedom of expression on subjects which I cannot help but think would be snickered at as "sissy" by the average American high school pupil. The individuals of the group impressed me as being at once less blasé and more mature than our students of the same age.

I left that classroom with the sensation that not only do we dare to hope for the future of German youth, but that we, as adults, might in some respects profit by their example—that we might become less "afraid" of showing our belief (if we have it) in the right of human beings to express thoughts and emotions which the "world" has learned to take with too many grains of salt—such as the belief in spiritual values, whether they be connected with religion or simply with the essential humanness of the human being, apart from his mission as scientist or politician or otherwise a promoter of material progress. The attitude of society has, in my mind, created a kind of subtle censorship that amounts to a tabu where the expression of spiritual values is concerned. It is as though we had outgrown such things—the very things which are our only hope for true peace and freedom.

I should not want to leave the impression that all I saw in my visits in German schools was inspiring. Even if we forget for the moment that only a small proportion of German children has the opportunity to attend the academic Oberschulen (which is, of course, the greatest flaw in their present system), there is a need for change in the methods used in the teaching of what we call the "social studies."

To my knowledge, such courses as economics, sociology and civics are not offered in the Oberschule. A study of these phases of historical development may, of course, be brought in incidentally in their history courses, but

I believe, judging from the history classes I visited, that they, like the other phases of history, past and present, would be taught by methods which are no longer considered adequate, even in the teaching of mathematics.

From my observation in class rooms and my informal talks with German educators and interested laymen, I believe that such phases as effective methods of teaching, excellent results as far as factual learning is concerned, and even satisfactory relationship between pupil and teacher have either been taken care of extremely well or are on the right track and can be left with safety to develop naturally. I found surprisingly few instances of "teacher on a pedestal" attitude. With exception of such formalities as having all pupils rise when the teacher enters and having each pupil rise as he recites (the latter a practice still favored by many democratic educators), there was in general little evidence of the authoritarian practice.

Where there was evidence it was among older teachers, who might be compared with some in our system in so far as their not fitting into a progressive organization is concerned. The difference lies in the reaction of the pupils to these teachers. In Germany they are given a polite, if grudging, consideration, and are no doubt maligned in private, whereas in America they are met either with open hostility or condoned as poor "old boys" who won't last much longer anyway and are not to be taken seriously any more than is your great-grandmother when she expresses opinions on modern youth. Both the German and the American type, I believe we can say, are on the way out and are therefore of comparatively minor importance.

Among the younger teachers and the younger pupils there was a definite interest in the subject, an understanding of the psychological processes of the adolescent and on occasion evidences of a sense of humor, which I had never considered a strong point among Germans as a whole.

I regret very much that I was unable to visit classes in schools of less exalted standards than the academic Oberschulen. My only contact with them was indirectly through conversations with a few products of such schools. I was impressed in these cases too with the thoroughness of the training they had received in those phases of human endeavor which were considered useful to their education. One comes to feel that whatever the the German educator does, whether he teach in the pre-university secondary schools or in the Fachschule, he does with extreme concentration and efficiency, by which we might profit.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL GOALS IN THE GERMAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF TODAY

If, however, we look for the two predominating aims in our educational system in the German school, we find little evidence of either of them, although they seem to us indispensable in the establishment of a psychologically sound democracy. It is the hope of the western "powers" and also of

many thinking Germans that Germany may become such a democracy. I am referring first to our belief that every child alike should be given the opportunity to develop as a whole individual, socially and emotionally, as well as intellectually according to his gifts and capacities and second to moulding these individuals into a body of citizens in which each will feel that he has a definite responsibility toward all of his fellows, regardless of what trade or profession he will follow. These are, of course, ideals for which we strive and every individual with any experience in living realizes that all too often reality falls short of the ideal.

The necessity for change in the details of the method by which we try to attain these goals is ever present. Should we forget that frequent readjustment is the order of the day, our system of education would become as rigid as the German system. To me the German school system is a striking example of the peculiarly German tendency to build up an iron-clad structure, which may at the time seem ideal, and then to force humanity into that structure, regardless of a changing society and ever present human differences among members of that society.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE WHOLE INDIVIDUAL BASED ON HIS NATURAL GIFTS

The organization of the academic Oberschule is a very revealing example of this tendency, and I believe the other types of schools which go beyond the Grundschule are of the same kind as far as the rigidity of their curriculum is concerned. Every child who enters the academic Oberschule must pass satisfactorily each of the main courses in the curriculum and must repeat all courses of each semester if he fail to pass successfully any of the main courses. As a result, a pupil who may have a characteristic lack of ability in languages cannot continue in mathematics or science until he has made a passing grade in the required language course. If he cannot attain a satisfactory standing in all subjects he is considered, in the last analysis, unfit for the academic Oberschule. In other words, the individual must adjust to the curriculum, not the curriculum to the individual needs.

There is, of course, in such a system little real attempt to discover what the individual's strong and weak points are, and to guide him with this knowledge in mind into those fields of learning in which he can hope to achieve at once the greatest amount of success as an individual and to further the common welfare.

The curriculum is in itself an excellent one (with the exception of the absence of social studies). It has its good points. It gives the young person who is of outstanding natural ability a well-founded, thorough training in all the accepted cultural subjects, a foundation which is admirable and of lasting value and not simply a smattering of "too little about too much."

One result of continuing his study of each subject throughout most of his time in the Oberschule is, in many instances, the development of a very satisfying second and third interest outside of his chosen profession. He may come to look upon the content of a course as something that grows from year to year and not as something he has forgotten in his senior year because it was a course he took in his freshman year.

With the development of the individual as a social being within his group the German educational endeavors seem to have little active concern. Such contacts the individual must find for himself outside of school. To many a young person without any outstanding interests which will of themselves lead to contact with a group this means that he will never acquire the assurance which comes with the knowledge that he is working or playing of his own volition with others in his own age group.

To my knowledge, clubs, school papers, student councils and other extra-curricular activities have in the past not become a part of the school life in Germany. Could we stimulate an interest in such activities, we might give a "lift" not only to the theory of developing the individual socially, but also to the idea of the school as a social unit which might carry over into the life of the community and the state.

I consider it a hopeful sign that, in spite of the additional drain on the teachers' time and energy involved in such extra-curricular activities, at a time when such an additional drain must be most unwelcome, some such enterprises have been recently begun.

I am thinking specifically of a school paper, *Der Anfang*, published in an Oberschule in Bad Nauheim in Hessen. I have several copies of the paper and a letter from the teacher in that school who fostered its inception. It is notable for the really good, interesting articles by the students, the sincerity of its purpose and, above all, in the seriousness with which its young staff carry on their work. In this respect it stands out uniquely in contrast to similar papers issued in schools in the U.S.A. There is usually a half page or more devoted to the activities of the newly formed Student Council, which evidently is also taking its mission with a seriousness which is rare in our schools. It is possible that the sincere interest displayed may in part be due to the novelty of such enterprises in Germany, but, on the whole, I think that the young people of Germany are of a more serious and conscientious turn of mind, as are perhaps the German people as a whole. It is a trait which may lead to a certain lack of vision and over-emphasis on living up to the letter and forgetting the spirit, and definitely does not aid in the developing of a sense of humor. Yet it is a trait which, if led in the proper direction, may work toward a better Germany, and perhaps even to more satisfactory living conditions for all of us, could we be infected by it. We might contribute a dash of humor and, if necessary, a few grains of salt.

THE POSITION AND RESPONSIBILITY OF THE INDIVIDUAL IN THE
DEMOCRATIC COMMUNITY AND STATE

Hopeful signs

The appearance of such innovations as the school paper in Bad Nauheim and the serious attitude of the student body toward their newly established student council should bring renewed courage to our American educators in Germany and to those Germans who hope to bring reforms into the traditional German system. We should not allow ourselves to expect these innovations to become suddenly universal. The human beings who are concerned are young people whose older brothers and sisters, or who even themselves, have so recently been misguided by innovations initiated by the national socialists, and instructors who are working under great difficulties—personal and professional. So much more hopeful should we be that such enterprises are voluntarily undertaken here and there. They are at least an indication that groups within the traditionally organized schools have an urge to work together. They may be the modest beginnings of an organization of a school system permitting and fostering the development of the whole individual and at the same time effecting a more democratic educational system as a whole.

Compatibility of our two goals

To an advocate of democracy in the schools as in the state the two goals indicated above seem to be inter-dependent. Consequently I experienced some surprise when first I heard interested and enlightened Germans say that in their opinion the idea of the greatest possible development of the natural capacities of the individual and the ideal of the greatest good for the greatest number, were mutually exclusive or at least incompatible. Later, however, I realized, that here was another instance of their taking the ideal of the development of the individual too literally and of concentrating on one phase of his development only—that is on the intellectual side of human endeavor.

German experiments—1920–1933

When we recall the really interesting experiments initiated in Germany during the period between the first world war and the ascendancy of the Nazi regime we think of the establishing of various types of secondary schools to accommodate those whose interests led in different directions. Such organizations as the Real-Gymnasium, the Oberrealschule and others were added to the old type Gymnasium, where young people might specialize in the sciences or in economics instead of the old humanities. These schools were in themselves a welcome innovation, but, in the last analysis, they could have no integrating influence, as they were housed in different buildings. The additional financial outlay which they entailed because of the

maintenance cost of supplying more buildings or greater distance for pupils to travel to and from schools, more instructors and added equipment may perhaps be overlooked as unimportant. The fact, however, that the system again separated children into various groups according to their intellectual interests only, was definitely not the best means for promoting a feeling of social unity, which is, in my opinion, the more important of our two aims. The extraordinarily gifted individual may more safely be left to find satisfactory development of his talents than the average and below average individual be left to find his own place in the functioning of the school and community. Moreover, it should be a part of the training of such individuals to make contacts with all types of personalities and become accustomed to working with them toward a common goal. Where can such training be better acquired than in the public schools?

Need for Einheitsschule

It seems to me that the "Einheitsschule," based on the principle of equal opportunity for all, is the obvious answer. Of course, there must be leadership, but the leaders should have personal contact with their fellows and the followers should have some idea of what the leaders are striving for and some voice in deciding what goals are to be sought. The leaders should come to look upon their leadership as a living and changing responsibility, won by the approval of those who are to be their followers and not as a privilege derived either from their inherited status or from their intellectual superiority. The followers should learn that they too are a responsible part of the whole system and must not follow blindly but must develop the capacity for evaluating the common goals and the courage to express their convictions so that those who lead may do so most effectively.

I am fully aware of the fact that this ideal is much more difficult to attain than that of the traditional ideal of the German school and state system, and, it would seem, also of some highly respected educators in the United States itself—that is, the government of all by the intelligentsia.

I am conscious, too, of the frustrating effects of the natural inertia of too many of the citizens in our own country. Still if we believe in democracy as the most just kind of government, cumbersome as it may seem at times, and if we should like to see true democracy come to Germany, we cannot hope to prod the entire body of adult inhabitants of a nation into realizing the responsibilities it involves. We can, however, hope to pave the way by making it possible for the large majority of the youth of the nation to get some insight into the first principles of democracy.

The traditional German school

At the present time free, common education extends only through the fourth year and free, specialized education at best through eight years. That

is to say, the pupil may remain in the Volksschule for the four additional years, at the termination of which he may be "apprenticed" to a tradesman or merchant and may continue his studies during his free hours. If it should happen at the end of his school years that he is in a position to continue his studies, he finds it practically impossible to do so, as his training has differed from that of the child who has left the Volksschule at the end of four years to enter some type of secondary school, where tuition must be paid.

Pupils are permitted to enter an Oberschule only by examination, which in itself, I suppose, might be justified on the theory that he would not be capable of achieving satisfactory results should he be permitted to enter after having failed the examinations. However, there must be some who could profit by continuing a general education for many more years provided the curriculum had as its basis such courses as might benefit the average or somewhat below average individual in intellectual ability, who when added to the thousands of others of his type will become the citizen of tomorrow.

But this is not the greatest shortcoming of the system. There is some point in holding that further training along strictly academic lines leading to a university career might not prove of much value to such a child, and provided he might be given adequate training at the level of his intellectual ability through his 17th and 18th year, the loss to him and to the general welfare would not be great. The greatest drawback is the fact that not all pupils make application to take the test. The parents of the great majority either find themselves unable to pay for further general education or tradition has through generations led them to believe that such education is a waste of time for their little Fritz or Anna, as Fritz is to become a baker and Anna will go into service, and later, if she is lucky, marry someone else's Fritz. The idea that even if Fritz does become a good baker and Anna a praiseworthy domestic servant, they should both also become good, praiseworthy and informed citizens has not seemed relevant.

Impossibility of developing thinking citizens

It is little wonder then that these two and hundreds of thousands of others can so easily be misguided by theories such as those of the National Socialists, out of sheer ignorance of what is at stake or of any other possible solution for problems which they have never had an opportunity to consider.

An analysis of the details of the organization of the German education system with its stratifications and emphasis on making Fritz a dependable baker, while Carl becomes a thoroughly trained salesman, Marie an excellent typist and Johann a competent lawyer is beyond the scope of this article. It must suffice here to indicate that there is much to be said for the

efficacy of the German system in turning out workers whose achievements are satisfactory, not to say remarkable. We should not be blinded by our pride in twelve years of free education for all to the fact that the products of our system may turn out somewhat "underdone" and untrained to begin adult life. In many cases it requires years of aimless shifting from one type of bread winning to another before a more or less satisfactory groove is found. Waste of energy and time may result from an education which is too vague as preparation for the responsibility of earning a living.

Good results in German training for life work—hopeful for achieving other goals

The German schools have achieved admirable results along these lines. So much more, then, can they and we hope that they may also successfully incorporate into their system the kind of training that should make admirable workers for world stability, provided they bring a broader general knowledge to the large majority of their people by avoiding the dangers of stratification.

I can see no better opportunity for achieving this goal than by concentrating our efforts on the adoption of common, free education in secondary schools, somewhat similar to ours in principle. Such schools should offer a large enough variety of subjects, electives and common extra-curricular activities to serve the needs of each child even if as a result the splendid quality of the training which has for generations been meted out to the minority suffers. If by developing a more enlightened body of citizens a nation can be spared a disaster such as Germany has just lived through, and into which half the world was thrust, is it not worth the sacrifice? We cannot expect this change to be brought about in a short time, nor can we insist that our system be imposed on the Germans even if it were practicable in all its details. We can, however, encourage the "reforms" which are being introduced, such as the gradual extension of the common school through an increasingly longer period and we can make suggestions and give understanding advice when it is called for. I am confident, moreover, that we can learn much in the process, just as it is an accepted fact that the teacher learns much himself in his effort to teach others.

SOME DIFFICULTIES IN INTRODUCING THESE GOALS

Here lies, in my opinion, our chief responsibility and the contribution which we are best equipped to offer—to make it possible that they see the goal ahead, although reaching that goal implies a great deal of expenditure and sacrificing of old ideals—that is free education for all through twelve years in common schools where the young people can develop a sense of unity. It is an essential contribution if we have the future of Germany and of the world at heart. On the other hand, it is one which is not only difficult

to give but also difficult to take and requires not only a considerable material expenditure but also patience, initiative, understanding and tact on our part. If ever we needed to be "good salesmen" this is the occasion. For there is more "sales resistance" to our offer than one who has not studied the situation might expect. Our problem is to sell them democracy before it is too late.

Staunch adherents to tradition

There is the immediate task of trying to convince a large number of Germans that a change in their educational system is desirable, not to say essential. This group includes many men connected with the German educational authorities and many who are not in the profession but who have a strong conviction that the educational system under which they were trained in past generations is *the* system.

This group resents interference on the part of outsiders and of their own countrymen with a system which to their minds is still the best of all possible systems because it has won such high acclaim in the past. They feel that it would be utterly foolhardy to strive for any goal other than the attaining of their former facility in administering the system as it functioned before the last few decades of wars and political ferment. At times it seems hardly worth trying to make these men and women see that the needs of the past are not the needs of the present, and that satisfying the needs of the past, no matter how efficiently, will not be satisfying the needs of the present nor of the future. I am afraid that should this group, by some miracle be convinced against its will, there would be left the vast problem of having them admit the change and act upon it. Can they be brought to see that in building up again upon the ruins it would be wiser to build a new structure which will satisfactorily house greater numbers, regardless of the privilege of background or even of innate intellectual capacities, than to erect again a "fortress" of dignity and old-world tradition that may attract wonder and acclaim, but can benefit too small a proportion of their people and so not even really benefit those few in a larger sense?

I do not know the answer. Even if we could force a more democratic outlook upon this group, we would find ourselves in the impossible position of using undemocratic methods to bring about democracy.

Financial difficulties

We should not forget also that Germany, like most other European nations, has never had great national wealth as compared with the U.S.A., and it would be fantastic to entertain any such notion as that it will attain much wealth in the future. Universal free education would mean to them an almost inconceivable financial outlay. We should have to convince them that such an additional outlay, at the time when it requires ingenuity and outside aid to acquire the essentials of elementary living, would be a truly

paying investment and one for which it would be well worth tightening their already often tightened belts.

Present state of emergency

Then there are the still very real problems caused by the present state of emergency in Germany. Such problems as procuring sufficient space, heat, light, adequate teachers, tolerable housing conditions for both pupils and teachers, clothing and nourishment. There are confusion and emotional difficulties caused by broken homes, fathers and brothers still considered missing or prisoners, entire families living in one room, the influx of refugees from the east, and the obvious cost in health, mental and physical, to both pupil and teacher. It would be impossible here to do justice either to the vastness of these problems or to the amazing ingenuity and good faith with which they are in many cases being met. It may even be possible that some good may result from the necessity to adjust to changing situations, great as the present toll in strain and nervous energy may be.

EFFECT OF THE PRESENT CONDITIONS ON OTHERWISE INTERESTED EDUCATORS

On the whole, their greatest importance is in their blocking the path of reforms in the traditional defects in the system. Although this seems to be the appropriate time for change, there is a natural tendency even on the part of essentially progressive educators to long for and work toward a more smoothly functioning system, though it be only along old lines—simply a return to pre-war or pre-Nazi conditions. There is a conviction even among schoolmen who are not blinded by pride in an educational system which has throughout generations won wide international recognition to feel they should first return to normal and then put time, energy and thought on reforms which they realize are necessary. They believe that such reforms as the extending of free education, though essential, are not humanly possible in the immediate present. When there is still a pressing need for even the most elementary tools, how is it humanly possible to give still more children the opportunity to continue their studies through several additional years?

This attitude is only too understandable and cannot simply be brushed aside, lest we lose the interest and discourage the patience of those German educators who do see beyond the immediate problems but can at present see no possibility for enlarging their facilities to embrace the great majority. It would be like telling an exhausted swimmer that he dare not stop on the first bit of land ahead because there is better land farther on. On the other hand, we who are not so exhausted can see the latent danger in stopping and building up again on old ideas, in losing sight of the ultimate goal in "reperfecting" the once highly regarded, though in many respects no longer useful organization.

SOME SUGGESTIONS TOWARD THE POSSIBLE SOLUTION
OF THESE PROBLEMS*Importance of convincing the doubtful group*

It seems to me that it is among the group of German teachers and laymen who do see the need for change but are at a loss as to how such change can be brought about that our most effective work can be done. We should attempt to get this group to see for themselves that the end is worth the additional strain, that the ultimate goal of free common broadening education for all youth alike is worth striving for, gradual as its attainment may be, in order to make less probable at least a recurrence of a dictatorship which is built up on too little knowledge of other possibilities.

If we can hope to add this group, of which I believe there is a considerable number to those who are already convinced and are ready to go forward no matter how great the odds, we need not despair. If, however, we allow them to slip back into their accustomed groove, the weight of their discouragement and inertia will, in effect, be added to the active objections of those who would not change the organization, even if it were easier to change than to hold on to the cherished past.

I think we may safely say that all thinking, sane people want peace and as tolerable living standards for all as natural and spiritual resources will permit. Only a small portion of these, however, are willing to give time and effort toward achieving these goals. Of these again only a minority have any definite idea of how they may be of service. Here is a responsibility left upon our doorstep as a "victor" nation—the responsibility of doing all we can to prevent at least one nation from again being misguided. It is for us to make the best use of what we find, such as a seriousness of purpose, the ability to do a thing thoroughly and the willingness to give up material comfort for an idea, once that idea has taken hold. It is for us to unite our efforts in trying to make democracy work at least in that part of Germany where it is our privilege to strive toward this end.

Of course, it is their responsibility to plan their own future. We cannot take them on as a satellite nation, even if both they and we should desire such a situation. All that we can do is to work to convince the more far sighted among them that democracy is desirable and feasible and hope that they in turn will convince their countrymen.

As educators, the specific task which falls to our lot is to facilitate as far as we can the democratization of the school system. This means more definitely the extension in time of free education for all who are in any way profited by it, through the twelve years period which we here in the U.S.A. take for granted.

Need for patience

How easily they may say: "That is all very well for you who are immeasurably richer than we. Your cities were not destroyed, your economic

life was not disrupted—at least, not in any sense approaching the completeness with which ours was. You did not live through ten years of dictatorship, so that you have become distrustful of all new ideas. Your people, young and old alike, have not lived through those ten years and a devastating war on your own land. You do not know how it feels to have to begin anew with so many of your people lost and without the help of many in their best years who are still held prisoner.” And although we, too, have lived through much sorrow and loss which is minimized by them and although our national wealth and well-being has always been exaggerated by Europeans, we must admit that by and large what they say is true. Many of their educational problems have their counterpart in the U.S.A., but again we must admit that these are of more serious import there because of the staggering burden, in spite of which they must go on from day to day.

Some of them will ask with both exasperation and hope in the question: “Will you please tell us how we are to go about achieving what you suggest?” The experiences of my stay in Germany last summer were, of course, not complete enough to have enabled me to acquire more than a few very modest and perhaps vague possible answers. Those experiences did, however, leave me with a definite admiration for the courage, understanding and sincerity of the Americans whom I met who are working on educational rehabilitation and for many of the Germans—educators and laymen. I have come to feel that the very fact that the above question is more frequently asked is a hopeful sign, and that if in the near future the sense of hope in the asking of the question is stronger than the sense of exasperation we can consider our efforts fruitful if we “faint not.”

Financial question

In answer to the financial question, I can only make the suggestion offered by Herr Hans Zerweck, Oberstudienrat of the Schiller Gymnasium in Ludwigsburg, to whom I owe so much of the information on German schools, that a certain fixed portion of the credits allowed by the Marshall Plan be allotted for the specific purpose of facilitating such reforms as the extension of the common school education to embrace more pupils for a longer period. I have been informed by Dr. Harold R. Snyder of the American Council on Education that there has been some planning done in this direction in connection with those phases of German education which directly affect the economic recovery of the country. Could not something of this nature be done in order to insure the realization of more education for greater numbers of children, lest we forget the needs of the future in concentrating on the needs of the present? I might suggest too that our educational authorities in Germany not be withdrawn too soon.

Let us not consider our job accomplished when we have just begun. I believe that the work we have begun in Germany has perhaps reached a critical stage. The relief experienced by the mere fact that the schools have been opened and have been given a start in groping their way back to nor-

mal has abated. We would now be faced with seeing our project through and making the time and energy spent by our authorities there worth the sacrifice already brought. We might well be inspired by some measure of the so-called "Deutsche Gruendlichkeit," if we truly desire to give something worthy of the end in view. I realize fully that there are some Germans and not a few Americans who feel that we should not "interfere." If, however, we sincerely hope to see our suggested projects accomplished, we should bear with the "stigma" attached to such names as "meddlers."

Need for courage and perseverance on our part

I repeat that I feel that much can be achieved by not relinquishing our hope of convincing those German educators who are "on the fence." I have never fancied myself as a "crusader." Still I believe that I may say that I left some few Germans with a more complete conception of our school system and a greater interest in its possibilities when applied to German education.

The Nazi ideal to create a united front and weld young people into an impenetrable mass of humanity termed the "Master Race" has, we hope, died a natural, if very costly, death. Could the German people be brought to realize that the principles of democracy might be an attainable ideal and one which could unite them in spirit with many peoples outside their own boundaries, the peace and stability of a world weary of destruction, yet drifting again dangerously near new and more complete destruction, might in some measure be furthered. This end would certainly be worth any effort required.

Encouragement to projects begun and planned

As practical means toward the goal, could we not encourage such enterprises as the establishing of a school of education planned, as I learned in my interview with Dr. Harold K. Snyder of the American Council on Education, to be founded in Stuttgart for the training of teachers—a school in which both German and American instructors would teach side by side? It seems to me, too, that it would be well worth the financial outlay to some of our "Foundations" to promote the exchange of teachers and administrators in order to permit a better working knowledge of the two school systems. This could be done not only on the university level, as it has been in the past, but also on the secondary and elementary school level, where, in my opinion, it would bring still more satisfactory results. It should also be possible to facilitate the visits, perhaps for a shorter period of time than a school year or semester, of interested individuals of the two countries.

It might help, too, if our educational authorities in Germany had time and opportunity to interview German teachers and administrators in our Zone of influence so that there might be some exchange of opinion.

I am not certain that the Educational Division of our Military Government can still influence the re-instatement of teachers who were disqualified because of their having been members of the Nazi party, who might have joined under pressure as many did, without any real conviction, but simply to spare themselves and their families from great mental or even physical discomfort. Neither do I know whether they have any authority to interfere with the reinstatement of teachers simply because they were disqualified during the Nazi regime. If their sphere of influence does extend into that phase of administration, some gains might be added to their solution of the immediate problem of finding adequate, qualified teachers.

How much thought, patience and tact must be expended on any of these projects can be realized only by the people who are giving of their time and courage for the establishment of a satisfactory foundation upon which a renewed and, as far as possible adequate, educational structure may be built to supply the needs of a changing world. As in the case of all projects of wide scope which must, of necessity, make progress slowly and against great odds, an almost inconceivable amount of active optimism is needed, in addition to a sincere desire for its realization. It would seem to me, however, fully worth the effort and perseverance which have already been given toward making it a reality. It would seem little short of an indication of irresponsibility to rest on our laurels at this point and allow ourselves to consider our task completed.

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* For much of the material on the German school, past and present, I am indebted to Herr Hans Zerweck, Oberstudienrat of the Schiller Oberschule in Ludwigsburg. It was through his interest and stimulation that I was enabled during the short time I was in Germany to obtain much more information, both intensive and extensive, than I could otherwise have hoped to collect. Furthermore, through his sincere desire to understand and appreciate American schools I found direction for the present and hope for the future of education in Germany. This paper would not have been possible without his aid and encouragement.

I owe much also to Mr. John P. Steiner, Chief of the Education and Cultural Relations Division of the Office of Military Government of the United States in Wuerttemberg-Baden, for his help toward making a reality of my self-imposed project. In interviews with Mr. Steiner I gained some insight into the problems faced by our educational authorities in Germany and the progress they are making in the solution of such problems.

I should like to express my appreciation too to Dr. George F. Zook, President of the American Council on Education in Washington, and to Captain Walter S. Diehl of the U. S. Navy for their interest and consideration, which made it possible for me to plan my visits to the German schools.

I am grateful as well for the friendly cooperation of the German teachers whose classes I visited.

*Modern Languages in the Modern Curriculum**

HISTORY, as well as friendship, "draws at each remove, a lengthening chain." We are all here today because of what happened at the Tower of Babel some thousand years B. C. For proof, read Genesis 11. "And the whole earth was of one language, and of one speech. . . and they said: 'Let us build us a city and a tower whose top may reach into heaven; and let us make us a name, lest we be scattered abroad upon the face of the earth.'

"And the Lord said, 'Behold the people are one, and they have all one language. And this they begin to do; and now nothing will be restrained from them, which they have imagined to do. Let us go down, and there confound their language, that they may not understand one another's speech.'

"So the Lord scattered them abroad upon the face of all the earth, and they left off to build the city: Therefore is the name of it called 'Babel,' because the Lord did there confound the language of all the earth."

And there the trouble began, and so continued, with one exception: See Acts 2: "When the Day of Pentecost was fully come, there came a sound from heaven as of a rushing, mighty wind; and they began to speak with other tongues and . . . every man heard them speak in his own language in which he was born . . . and the young men saw visions and the old men dreamed dreams."

One might draw numerous interesting conclusions from this gift of tongues which made spiritual revelation possible to the early Christians.

Through the centuries it is obvious that barriers of speech more than barriers of mountains or seas have separated men, and kept them from building the great world of their imaginings. The mastery of the civilized world by Greece and Rome created a temporary unity through the general use of Greek and Latin. The spread of Christianity was undoubtedly due as much to the fact that Greek was spoken colloquially throughout the Mediterranean world, as to the magnificent Roman roads which tempted civilians as well as armies to overflow the land. But Rome and Greece fell from their high estate.

* A paper presented at the session on Modern Languages of Schoolmen's Week, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, March 31, 1949. Program arranged by the Modern Language Association of Philadelphia and Vicinity.

With the development of Western Europe there came an attempt on the part of the universities and the schools to develop versatility in tongues. French became the language of diplomacy; Italian, the language of literature and of art; English, the language of Empire; German, the language of science; Latin and Greek, the medium of communication among scholars throughout the civilized world. Students matriculated at more than one university, usually to achieve facility in language.

In the early days of our own New England schools, patterned naturally after the great Public Schools of England, Latin and Greek were the medium of instruction. Those "boys of good parts, capable of being prepared to enter the Universities of Yale and Harvard, and thence to serve the church and the State," were deft with the classical tongues or their masters knew the reason why. It was not until 1840—after the war of 1812, please note—that English was introduced into these schools as a medium of instruction, and the divines who taught there while waiting for an appointment to Church Orders resented the intrusion violently.

The University of Pennsylvania was fortunate to have been influenced in its beginnings by the genius and catholicity of taste of the founder, Benjamin Franklin. Franklin insisted that modern languages—French, German, and even Spanish—should be taught in his academy, along with mathematics, science, and vocational skills; and it was done.

Since those early days, however, we have gone through a long and pitiful decline in the teaching of modern languages in our public, and, to a lesser degree, in our private schools. One has only to meet the product of a European or of an Asiatic school, for that matter, to discover that several foreign languages including English have been taught, along with the vernacular, and not for three or four years at the secondary level, but from the earliest years, and that daily.

Our policy with our instruction in languages has always been too little and too late, and with uncertain emphasis. As a result, some of our graduates can read French or German more or less easily, but rarely do so for pleasure. Most of them are tongue-tied when they try to speak, and rarely do they understand or appreciate the psychology or the culture of the people to whom the language is native.

We have, I believe, been subject to two serious inhibitions in our attempts to teach foreign tongues in the United States:

First: We stem from the English who have long thought English enough for anybody. True, they devoured and assimilated the speech of their Saxon, Roman, Celtic, and Norman-French invaders and achieved thereby a rich and racy vernacular; but they have in their later history been satisfied to try to create an English-speaking world, and they have left versatility in language to the continentals.

Second: We have, as a nation, been severely insular in our habits and

extremely vigilant in our attempts to Americanize all new-comers. It has always been considered a triumph when the foreign families in our cities began to use English at home. The effect of these policies in our schools has been to make the study of languages a mere social frill or a death trap for the unwary student.

Methods, too, have been a constant source of discord among teachers of languages. It has seldom seemed possible to reach an accord in regard to objectives or techniques. In the meantime, students have fallen by the wayside, language enrollments diminished, and both administrators and the public have frequently pronounced language instruction as less than worthless. Teachers of language have quietly taken on some minor subject more likely to be in demand in the schools than their chosen major.

Then came World War II, and our boys and to some extent our girls roamed the world. We have all met these young Americans who have come back from service fluent in Korean, Japanese, Chinese, Russian, French, German, Italian, or Dutch. We have watched their preparation in indoctrination courses, both on the campus and in training camps. We have seen them take concentrated instruction in languages with profit, and with great satisfaction—even with enjoyment.

When a bomber can span the globe in less than four days—and remember Puck promised to “put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes” and Shakespeare is often a true prophet—when our boys have found at first hand that language barriers can and must disappear, the time is surely ripe for our teachers of language to review the situation and take action. Even our Senators who traveled abroad during the war and during the period of occupation have appreciated any bit of language competency they happened to possess.

In this new, divided world our curricula are under microscopic examination. Our school product is being subjected to caustic criticism. Incidentally, some of our teaching must have been good or our boys could not have adapted themselves to the discipline of modern military training, and to the ordeals of combat on alien shores so triumphantly as they have done.

A new era is upon us, however. It is an era in which physics and biochemistry, aeronautics and cyclonic machines will operate. It is an era, also, we dare to believe, in which the gift of tongues will come into its own. Languages will be taught earlier and longer, along with great improvement in the general use of English. Travel will increase beyond our wildest imaginings; television and radio will carry language programs; schools will provide more and better teachers. More students will “take” languages and the languages will “take” better with them. Even with the so-called “non-language-minded child,” wiser selection of material and better methods will bring surprising results.

As to methods, probably the natural order is first to speak. Then almost

concurrently to read and write. Apropos of grammar, that eternal bugbear, we shall realize more keenly, I think, that grammar grew out of language, not language out of grammar. We have codified language customs—hence grammar. The French *Académie* has been *par excellence* the authority in France, and French children have been taught to speak and to write with amazing correctness. The French *Académie*, however, has crystallized, not created language modes in French. Grammar, therefore, will illumine and fortify our usage of language not stultify it.

It is interesting to note that the present Labor Government in England has undertaken to improve the speech of the British "masses." A young American student at Oxford was interested in the matter and decided to speak to his Don about it:

"What do you think," he asked, "about the government's plan to improve the cockney speech?"

"Well," drawled the Don, "I say, them that have 'äh's to 'äh,' let 'em 'äh!'" And that was that.

The story reminds me of my struggles to teach the correct use of our very tricky irregular verbs in high school. The girls, all freshmen, came largely from homes in which English was a foreign tongue. I taught valiantly and as dramatically as possible. One day I asked the class to prepare three sentences using different forms of the verb "to lie," meaning to recline. The recitation was to be given without reference to notes. At the next meeting of the class, I sent several girls to the platform and the first one began:

"I was lying in bed this morning thinking of a beautiful poem we had learned. I had lain quite still almost dreaming, when my mother called. (Teacher was smiling. Only one more sentence to go!) The girl continued: "Oh, mom, I'm thinking; please leave me lay!" And the class was quite unmoved by the performance.

I hope the British Labor Government will be more successful than I was with my Philadelphia misses.

One can multiply incidences of the inability of the average American to express his ideas in ordinarily correct English.

I came up the River Drive in a taxi after our most recent snow storm. The river and the trees were entrancingly lovely. At one beautiful turn the driver said with real feeling: "Beautiful, ain't it? It's like something wot youse read about!" And he was a nice ex-service boy, too.

Yes, speech is a pitfall in any language, but I believe, truly, that we can improve the English of our boys and girls while we widen and deepen their language concepts and achievements in foreign tongues. There are other implications, too.

We talk a great deal in these days about developing understanding of other nations and other races. We should remember, as teachers of language,

that a sentence or two of conversation is sometimes worth a volume on customs and habits. National customs are external as compared with language. It is out of the abundance of the heart that the mouth speaketh, and it is out of the abundance of the heart that real understanding—not tolerance—of other people is nourished. Translations are dead, at best. Language is living and potent.

There is another reason why the millennium is here for teachers of languages. Single salary schedules are in force in Philadelphia and in many other cities. For the first time in the history of our public schools it will not cost any more to teach modern languages in the elementary schools than to teach the "three R's" and I predict that the ability to read, write, and speak English will be strengthened when language facility is developed early through acquaintance with a foreign tongue. Certainly world interest will be aroused more vitally in our children when they begin very early to know the world through the medium of speech.

At the secondary level new enthusiasm will be found, both for the Romance languages and for Latin and Greek. European universities are already awake to new demands on their language programs. I met a group of Greek women during the World Conference of Women which met here at the University last year. One was teaching modern Greek in the University of Leyden. She said the teachers of classical languages were skeptical about the success of her course. The classes were filled to overflowing, however, and several professors of languages were among the members.

The other taught English and Greek in an American school in Athens. She had a fellowship to Smith College in order to learn American techniques in establishing democratic ideals in the minds of their students, but she was especially interested in our foreign language programs. "You do everything so well," she said, "I am sure when you really turn your attention to languages you will make history!"

Our own graduate students are very enthusiastic over the new possibilities for teaching languages in America. I had a letter from a graduate student of the University of Pennsylvania who has had a scholarship at the Sorbonne for two years. He writes: "I can't wait to put all these experiences—school, theater, life in the town, travels—to work in some schoolroom in Philadelphia where I can share them, and make them live again in what I teach. I feel that my own language has come alive at last."

The world is too small for exclusiveness in language, as in trade. Trade has long understood the necessity for versatility in languages. A graduate of one of our city high schools and of the University of Pennsylvania is at this minute Vice-President of a great drug firm in Philadelphia. She is a linguist, and as a linguist travels the world over for her firm. She is charming and, I am sure, creates good will and better understanding along with her commercial enterprises.

Yes, the peoples of the world must understand each other's speech and through understanding each other's tongues, learn to build again cities and towers where harmony shall reside in contrast to the confusion and weakness which resulted when the tongues of the people were confounded in the ancient city of Babel. The presence of the United Nations in America has undoubtedly brought to the scores of young people who are constant visitors at Lake Success a realization that to know several languages opens doors to world understanding. Youth has already shown a deep desire to become poly-lingual. This is our cue, teachers of language. Let not wait for another world war to point the way we should go.

OLIVE ELY HART

University of Pennsylvania

NATIONALS' ANTHEM

(A Nursery Song)

Sing a song of friendship,
A pocket full of guns,
Four and twenty battleships
And corpses by the tons.

Stir them all together
And add a dash of tears—
Now isn't that a dainty dish
For brotherhood to cheer?

When the strife is over
We leaders will convene,
And scribble down some promises
That none of us will mean.

And if you still will let us,
Why, every twenty years
We'll serve you all this recipe
For heartbreak, blood, and tears.

—DOLORES MORGANSTON ALLEN

University of Michigan

Learning a Foreign Language: Suggestions for Mastery

PROGRESS in learning a foreign language is in direct proportion to the intelligent, purposeful effort expended. The following suggestions for mastery have proved extremely helpful to many students:

STUDY AIMS AND HABITS

Think of work not in terms of pages, exercises, or lessons, but in terms of definite skills and abilities to be gained. Give yourself immediately profitable and ultimately pleasurable aims for your study. Have a regular time and place for study, and place all necessary tools conveniently at hand before starting on a lesson. Develop a study technique by which you get all possible aid from visual, auditory, and vocal organs, and sometimes motor activity. Make a visual tableau of as many points as possible to assist in the task of retention. Carefully pronounce aloud all words that you read or write, applying the elementary principles of phonetics. Isolate difficult sounds for special drills, in which you strive to imitate the pronunciation of a good native speaker of the language.

TEXTS AND MATERIALS

Keep an indexed notebook with cross-references. Develop a system of note-taking, organizing material carefully under headings and topics. Keep all corrected exercises and tests. Get all possible help from the index, appendix, notes, vocabulary, maps, and illustrations in your text-book. Consult supplementary texts, maps, dictionaries, and periodicals. Examine different grammars to get new views of difficult points, and copy helpful information and graphic illustrations.

CLASS ASSIGNMENTS

Keep all assignments in a notebook. Prepare each day's assignment thoroughly, but always review the lesson for the last class before beginning the new one. Go over the new material as a whole, then section by section, marking anything you do not understand that you may ask the teacher to explain it. Carefully select the main points with any examples, giving special attention to those stressed by the teacher; then think through all these until sure you can readily recall them. If possible, review the lesson with one or more other students. In any case, review the whole rapidly before class recitation. Time your studying and train for speed.

GRAMMAR

To learn genders, think and say the article with the noun. (If in French the noun begins with a vowel, learn an adjective with it also—*l'herbe verte*, *l'arbre vert*.) To facilitate mastery of irregular verbs, apply the elementary phonetic laws such as the principle of vowel change under stress and the fall of the medial consonant. Learn to correlate and group "regular irregularities." Take a simple affirmative statement with two pronoun objects—repeat and rewrite it in various patterns which it may assume in the context (negative, interrogative, negative-interrogative, affirmative-imperative, negative-imperative, in different tenses, persons, etc.). Learn sentences containing examples of grammatical principles which are the keys to the structural pattern of the language, and recall the rules which explain these principles. Drill on these points until accuracy and fluency are automatic.

READING

Read the foreign language aloud daily. In preparing a reading assignment, try first to get the thought of the whole by reading it aloud without consulting vocabulary. Do not overlook words you have learned. Make intelligent guesses of new words by analyzing them into their component parts (roots and affixes); by relating them to similar words in English or another familiar language; or by inference from use in the context. (A word is a relative thing which may change in meaning, function, form, and position.) Then verify by vocabulary. Write in note-book key words and difficult phrases with English translation. Rapidly reread the entire selection for unity of thought. Finally, relate aloud in the foreign a brief résumé of story or other content.

REVIEWS AND TESTS

Check vocabulary frequently by placing words in categories or families and by recalling synonyms or antonyms. Use cards for difficult words or expressions. Practice out loud sentences in which different meanings of a word occur. At regular intervals, review entire sections in your textbook. Frequent repetition insures long retention. At regular intervals, prepare and give yourself brief tests. You can avoid surprise over your grades by keeping tab on yourself.

SUPPLEMENTARY HELPS

Supplement class work with outside experience. Make the foreign language a part of your daily life by thinking and speaking it on all possible occasions. In the foreign language, plan or recall your daily activities and hold imaginary dialogues; converse with schoolmates and ask one another questions. Seek contacts with native speakers. Read newspapers and listen

to broadcasts and recordings in the foreign tongue, and attend movies giving the foreign background. Carry a small notebook and put in it everyday expressions and new grammatical constructions that you may hear, or observe in your supplementary reading.

Foreign language learning is over-and-ever-again-learning. Persistent practice is the key to success.

MAUDE HELEN DUNCAN

Temple University

LINGUISTIC PERIPATETIC

Curriculum, curriculum, o verbum ter ridiculum
 With which the pedant tickles um, till students, teachers sigh ho-hum.
 In times of yore 'twas right to seek, instruction sound in Latin, Greek.
 Today such person would seem meek, and rate with many as a freak,
 To train his mind on discipline, regarded now as meanest sin,
 Not seemly for a gentleman, more harmful far than potent gin.
 But in the eighteenth century, came Franklin's famed Academy,
 Which tried to make the student free, from classic tongues' sad tyranny.
 Instead, the modern tongues were put; thus French and Spanish gained a foot,
 Italian, German struck some root, and midnight oil produced much soot.
 The high school later crowded was, with alien language rasping buzz,
 Complaint was loud, what hard work does, resulting in but lots of fuzz.
 Greek was the first to walk the plank, soon after also Latin sank,
 Then World War One made German lank, but French for some time kept its rank.
 Came World War Two and France went low, and thus her language got a blow,
 That gives it many rows to hoe, before it will emerge from woe.
 Then south our gaze went toward the sun, and Spanish got a marvellous run,
 Not only was it lots of fun, but allies could thus too be won.

Today all tongues are 'neath a cloud, and some have e'en prepared the shroud,
 In which to wrap what once was proud, amid no lamentations loud.
 While linguists fight in noisy strife, like angry spouse with foolish wife,
 'Bout methods best for lengthy life, their foes are grinding sharp the knife,
 With which to bring their course to end, and ship their wares abroad lease lend,
 When wails the atmosphere will rend, since then the corpse will never mend.
 Today a linguist thinks it luck, if he demise can only duck,
 So he would rather pass the buck, and feign he's "life adjustment" struck.
 Far better would it be to fight, for chance to do his job just right,
 To raise aloft revisions sight, and spread abroad revealing light.

OSWALD R. JUEHNE

*Overbrook High School,
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Jacinto Grau's "El señor de Pigmalión"

IN SHAKESPEARE'S *Hamlet*, Tamayo y Baus' *Un drama nuevo*, and Ferenc Molnar's *The Play's the Thing*, a play takes place within a play, but the distinction between the two is always clear-cut. In Pirandello's *Sei personaggi in cerca d'autore*, based on an earlier story of his, there is a play within a play, but the line of demarcation between the reality of the live actors and that of the six created characters is completely lost. This fusion of reality with fantasy, and the independence of the created from the creator is seen also in Karel Capek's *R.U.R.* and Jacinto Grau's *El señor de Pigmalión*.¹ All three plays were written in 1921.

Although it has not had the world-wide recognition of the other two plays, Grau's has also had an illustrious career, and deserves wider recognition. It has been translated into French, Italian, Czech and English. The play, like many of don Jacinto's, was published (1921) before it was performed, and received its world première in a foreign country. It was presented in Paris in 1923 by Charles Dullin, in Prague in 1925 by Karel Capek, and in Italy (date unknown) by Luigi Pirandello. It did not reach Madrid till 1928, when the Meliá-Cibrián company played it.

As its name indicates, the story is based on the myth of Pygmalion and Galatea. From it Grau takes the fundamental idea of the creation of life from inorganic matter, and of the creator falling in love with the thing created. As in the Russian ballet *Petrouchka*, the animated objects are dolls.

Plot: The three producers who are going to sponsor a show by Mr. Pigmalión are anxiously awaiting his arrival. The Duke, owner of the theatre, throws them into a frenzy by announcing that Pigmalión is an artist. They are afraid anyone artistic will make them lose money. They are interested only in profits. Pigmalión arrives. They are reassured when he tells them that he has created life-size puppets that walk and talk, and present comedies. They assert that they can make a profit only with comedy. Pigmalión says he is in love with Pomponina, a beautiful puppet, and predicts that the Duke will fall in love with her too.

Later Pigmalión shows the producers his puppets. Pigmalión orders them to come out of their boxes. They are reluctant to do his bidding. They walk and talk like human beings. The producers think that they are mechanical dolls and that Pigmalión is a ventriloquist. Pomponina, exquisitely beautiful and vain, dazzles the producers with her beauty. The Duke decides to kidnap her.

¹ Manuel Linares Rivas' *Almas brujas*, performed in Madrid in 1922, is similar to Grau's play. It is much inferior, however.

When the theatre is empty, the puppets come out of their boxes. "Juan el tonto," who can only say, "cu, cu," steps out of his box and hides. Mingo Revulgo tempts Pomponina into his box by shaking a bag full of money. "Juan el tonto" points out Mingo Revulgo's box to Don Lindo, Pomponina's handsome sweetheart. He begs her to come out. Lucas Gómez laughs at Don Lindo and then snatches off his wig and runs away with it. They laugh at Don Lindo who runs into his box as Pomponina comes out of Mingo Revulgo's box carrying a string of pearls and jingling some coins. They hear a noise, and run to their cases. The Duke enters and opens Pomponina's case. He offers her a palace and immense wealth. She goes with him. The others follow a short time afterward.

The Duke has taken Pomponina to a lonely farm house. She has gotten tired of him already and locks him in a room just to amuse herself. Julia, the Duke's wife, comes into the house and starts to shake Pomponina. The other puppets arrive on the scene and rescue Pomponina, pushing Julia in the room with her husband. Pigmalión comes in, frees the Duke and his wife, and then whips the puppets, ordering them to get into a truck. Pedro de Urdemalas refuses, and shoots him with a gun he had found in the house. They all run away except "Juan el tonto." Pigmalión asks him for help. Juan hits him with the gun, shouting gleefully, "cu, cu," as Pigmalión dies.

In the play, Grau gives a résumé of his ideas on the commercialism of the producers, and the foibles of the actors. Ponzano, a vain, pompous comedian brags about his ability to keep the public favor while the tragic actors starve. The producers are interested only in making money. They decide to retain Ponzano for a tour because only comedy will bring them profits, and dismiss Miranda, the tragic actor. The authors are also included in the satire. One author-translator is so ignorant that he says "pusilámíne" and "examine" for "pusilánime" and "exánime."

The play centers not on the human beings but on the animated life-size puppets. Pigmalión has created popular Spanish types which have their counterparts all over the world. Their names are rich in Spanish folklore:² Pero Grullo, a person who is always proclaiming an obvious truth—una "perogrullada"; "Ambrosio, el de la Carabina," refers to a person who is not good for anything: "Periquito entre Ellas," a young man who likes to be among women; "Bernardo, el de la Espada," also refers to a person who is not good for anything—there is a proverb "como la espada de Bernardo que ni pincha ni corta"; Lucas Gómez, a person who does things by himself—there is a proverb "como Lucas Gómez, él se lo guisa y él se lo come." Other popular characters, famous in Spanish literature are: Pedro Urdemalas, arch-contriver, subject of an *entremés* by Cervantes; Mingo Revulgo, who represents the people in the fifteenth century satire *Coplas de Mingo Revulgo*; Don Lindo, a Beau Brummel, may refer to *El lindo don Diego* of

² A discussion of the folklore types in this play can be found in: *Luis Montoto y Rautenstrauch, Personajes, personas y personillas que corren por las tierras de ambas castillas*, Seville, Grönes, 1921-22, 2 vols.

Agustín Moreto; Pomponina may be a disguised form of Colombina, the "commedia dell'arte" character.

The marionettes reflect all of the imperfections of humanity. Hence the selection of folklore types representing people's deficiencies. The outstanding doll is Pomponina. She is so well-delineated that she assumes a reality that the human beings of the play do not have. She is the epitome of feminine coquettishness and fickleness. Pigmalión says of her: "No hay nada que atraiga más en amor que lo imposible, lo inútil, y lo superfluo. Pomponina es todo eso." (I, 3) She always wears a beautiful, expensive mirror hanging from her neck, in which she is constantly admiring herself. She goes with whoever will offer her the most luxuries, and tires quickly of her new sweethearts.

"Juan el tonto" is one of the leading characters and perhaps the most comical. He is Pigmalión's first and most simple puppet. Pigmalión says of his antics: "La tontería casi nunca es generosa. Necedad y mezquindad, suelen ser hermanas." (I, 3).

"El capitán Araña," the "brave" one, always stays behind the line of danger, sending thousands of men to the front. When the puppets are escaping from the theatre, he sends the "Enano" and Ambrosio out of the window first and says: "Yo os envidio a ti al 'Enano' y al valiente Ambrosio, porque estáis llamado a la inmortalidad" (II, 2), but he remains behind.

Pedro de Urdemalas, the evil doer who finally murders Pigmalión, had gotten out of hand when Pigmalión was making him, and was finished with hesitation. He is the most intelligent of the puppets. When the Captain was sending the others through the window, staying behind while the others escaped, he said to him: "Tu presencia debe evitar todo peligro, Capitán, porque, como la mía, es indispensable en las farsas y en el mundo." (II, 5).

Pero Grullo who continually makes "profound" remarks such as: "Cuando se calla, siempre hay silencio" (II, 3) is a satirical representation of the leaders in government and society. Pigmalión says of him:

Pero Grullo es el talento más seguro, agasajado y reconocido entre mis muñecos. Todos le admiran y le consultan. Es la mayor autoridad entre ellos, y si un día se emanciparan y formaran Gobierno sería jefe del Gobierno. (I, 3)

The second act is brilliant. With a few brush-strokes, Grau epitomizes the characteristics of each type of human being. Don Lindo, the foppish, pretty lover, sings and makes love to Pomponina, the essence of fickleness, selfishness, and vanity. Mingo Revulgo, the fat businessman, lures her into his case by jingling a bag of money. Lucas Gómez, who is always eructating, runs off with Don Lindo's wig, and "Juan el tonto," points at Mingo Revulgo's case when Pomponina is in there and makes the sign of the cuckold—the "horns," with his hands. Marilonda keeps Periquito out of her case until he promises to give her a choice bit of gossip about Lucinda. The instigator of the escape is, of course, Pedro Urdemalas. When they are

escaping, Pero Grullo remarks that the end of their slavery marks the beginning of their liberty, and the "brave" captain remains behind while exhorting the other to glory.

Pigmalión is the connecting link between the world of reality and that of fantasy. He gives the producers a careful explanation of the mechanism of his puppets, thus making the animation of the dolls more credible to the audience. Pigmalión perhaps follows the lead of Gordon Craig when he tells the producers the reason for his creation:

Nació en mí la idea de crear artificialmente el actor ideal, mecánico, sin vanidad, sin rebeldías sumiso al poeta creador, como la masa de los dedos de los escultores . . . (Prologue, X)

Pigmalión says he first wished to create ideal actors, but later he conceived the idea of making a race of supermen:

Luego, leyendo la Enciclopedia de Edimburgo, fuí más lejos en mi propósito, y me tentó el deseo de sobrepujar a la mecánica, y producir muñecos-criaturas, de un barro sensible y complicado como el humano.

Duque.—¡Atrevida idea!

Pigmalión.—Muchos la han tenido; yo solo la he realizado, y pienso llegar a más; crear algo mejor que el hombre. (Prologue, X).

He is aware that he is assuming the function of God. He feels like Prometheus, and has a presentiment that he may be punished. The Duke says: "Es usted un nuevo Prometeo," to which Pigmalión answers: "Exactamente. Y quizás me castiguen los dioses, como al propio Prometeo." (I, 2).

The puppets represent Pigmalión's early attempts at the creation of doll-creatures. He hopes to keep improving them. He is aware of the great power he has in his hands. He says to them:

Yo soy el hombre, el fuerte, el amo, el creador. Vosotros sois mis juguetes, mis peles, mis bufones . . . (III, 9)

The great Pigmalión, the all-powerful one, however, is vanquished by the weak, led by Urdemalas, who said: "El mando es de los débiles astutos." (III, 6) Pigmalión is treacherously shot down by Urdemalas, and as he lies wounded says:

Los dioses vencen eternamente aniquilando al que quiere robarles su secreto . . . Iba a superar al ser humano, y mis primeros autómatas de ensayo, me matan por la espalda, alevosamente . . . ¡Triste sino el del hombre héroe, humillado continuamente hasta ahora, en su soberbia, por los propios fanteoches de su fantasía . . . !

Significantly, "Juan el tonto," the meanest of his puppets, is the one who gives him the final blow which kills him.

El señor de Pigmalión is the most profound and complicated of Grau's plays. Many of the ideas he has expressed in other works and in essays of criticism, he weaves artistically into the fabric of the play. We see here

the criticism of the actors and producers; the infusion of life into lifeless matter, the complete liberation of the new life from the creator, and the eventual destruction of the creator; the desire to supplant inflated and inartistic actors with marionettes subject to the will of the author, and the division of mankind into enlightened gifted individuals and ignorant selfish masses.

Pigmalión is the focal point of the fundamental theme, which is the desire to create a superior race of men. The puppets represent all of humanity—its vanity, fickleness, treachery, stupidity, superficiality, hypocritical bravado, love of mediocrity, love of luxury, and love of baubles. They are in relation to Pigmalión, much the same as we humans are to God. When Don Lindo asks him: "Por qué me has dado vida, Pigmalión, para hacerme tan desgraciado?", Pigmalión answers: "Por la misma razón que Dios me dió vida a mí y al mundo, sin consultarmelo." (II, 3). Thus the marionettes, symbolizing mankind, are given life by Pigmalión, symbolizing God, and because of the inherent weaknesses of their nature, cannot uplift themselves to a higher level. Pigmalión when talking of the mercenary producers says: "Son como mis actuales muñecos. Dan de sí aquello que tienen. Cada hombre no puede ser más que como lo forjaron." (Prologue, X). Destiny too here plays its part.

Pigmalión has a double function. Looking at the play from another angle, we can say that Pigmalión is a superior individual who tries to uplift the common herd, but is overcome by the "astute weak."

Wishing to hear the opinion of the author on these possible interpretations, this writer asked Jacinto Grau for his comments. He replied:

Respecto a la interpretación que me escribe Ud. de *El señor de Pigmalión*, le diré que me parece muy aguda e interesante, pero la obra la hice sin el menor propósito metafísico y si esa intención metafísica aparece, se debe exclusivamente al juego de la farsa.³

The answer is very interesting for it proves Grau's constant insistence that art is intuition and that he never writes a work with a thesis of any kind, social or metaphysical. This does not mean, however, that there is no philosophic intent in the play. It merely proves that the thoughts he expresses in his works are expressions of a subconscious system. Grau is interested in the creation of beauty. He felt an inspiration and put it into words, without regard to any kind of thesis.

As far as its artistic merit is concerned, the important part of *El señor de Pigmalión* is not any philosophic message that the author might have had in his mind, but the supreme artistry with which he created this gem of the stage. The satiric portrayal of the various types of humanity is executed with a deft humorous touch, The union of the tragic and the

³ Letter to the writer dated March 28, 1949.

comic, gives it the flavor of the Italian grotesque school. All the puppets are humorous characters at the same time that they reveal the tragedy of man's weaknesses. The ending is typical of grotesque irony, "Juan el tonto," the moron, killing the great Pigmalión, and flitting about crying, "cu, cu."

The stage technique is modern. In the prologue, huge posters cover the stage, announcing the puppets of Pigmalión. In the scenes which take place in the theatre, nine cream-colored boxes, large enough for the life-size puppets, stand out against a dark background of cloth. When the marionettes are introduced to the producers and the Duke, they do a short dance. Their movements are accompanied throughout the play by the sound of clinking metal as if their joints were creaking with their motions. Thus Grau makes use of color, sound, music, and dance to interpret the mood of the play. It is probably a particularly difficult play to perform as the actors must give the audience the illusion of seeing a mechanical doll acting like a human being.

On February 16, 1923, *M. de Pygmalion* had its world première in Paris. It was performed at the Vieux Colombier theatre, by the Atelier company, directed by Charles Dullin. The translation was by Francis de Miomandre. In a review signed "Parijanine," the next morning in the Communist newspaper *L'Humanité*, the reviewer said:

L'auteur semble habitué a un public d'imbéciles. On sent en lui un artiste délicat qui commence à posséder pour son malheur "l'expérience du théâtre." Il insiste lourdement sur les moindres motifs d'une reflexion naïve, il tire une scène parfois amusante, mais longue; il s'attarde, il s'accroche à des idées secondaires. Sa pièce, mal construite, très surchargée et mal remplie, semble faite pour des esprits paresseux, endormis, alourdis par des coups de soleil . . .

J'ai l'air de dénigrer le spectacle de l'Atelier. Je m'y suis pourtant bien amusé, comme un enfant.⁴

The magazine *Le théâtre et comoedia illustré* carried a page of pictures, a summary, and said of it:

Ce n'est là qu'une farce où se mêlent la fantaisie, la poésie, et la philosophie de manière tantôt comique et tantôt tragique . . . Le Théâtre de l'Atelier dont les efforts de M. Charles Dullin ont fait un des plus intéressants théâtres d'art, lui [Grau] a assuré une réalisation saisissante et pittoresque, fantastique et réaliste à la fois.⁵

Grau's success in Paris travelled as far as Mexico. Luis de Larroder, in an article entitled "Un gran dramaturgo español desconocido en Mexico: Jacinto Grau," written shortly after the performance, mentions the production:

En el pasado mes de abril, en una crónica del popular escritor hispano Federico García Sánchez, escritor desde París se hace mención del triunfo rotundo que ha

⁴ "Le Théâtre," *L'Humanité*, Paris, Feb. 17, 1923, p. 2.

⁵ Paris, March 1923, no reviewer named, no page number.

obtenido un admirable dramaturgo catalán, Jacinto Grau Delgado, en la capital francesa con su obra *Monsieur de Pigmalión*.⁶

Don Jacinto considers this run at the Vieux Colombier one of his finest successes. In a letter to the writer, he describes the discussion it created and tells how it led to a performance in Prague. Speaking of Capek's *R.U.R.*, he says:

... obra muy conocida y comentada, escrita antes que *El señor de Pigmalión*, sin más parecido que los muñecos como actores, y obra que yo no conocía. Cuando Capek estrenó su obra en París, después de la mía, le dijeron algunos periódicos que su farsa hubiera tenido más éxito todavía más resonante, si no se hubiese estrenado poco antes mi *Pigmalión*. A esa circunstancia creo yo que se debe la autorización que pidió para la traducción y estreno de mi farsa en Praga.⁷

From Paris then, the play was taken to Prague, and was produced there by Karel Capek himself, at the National Theatre of Prague on September 25, 1925. There is no review available to this writer, but we have news of it through an article written by Ricardo Baeza⁸ soon after, in which he calls the play "un éxito señaladísimo, a juzgar por la prensa de Praga," and that they contemplated producing *El conde Alarcos*, another Grau play, the following January. Baeza also mentions that Pirandello includes it in his repertory of the Teatro d'Arte.⁹

El señor de Pigmalión was finally performed in Spain in the Teatro Cómico, Madrid, on May 18, 1928 by the Miliá-Cibrián Company. Pepita Miliá played Pomponina, Benito Cibrián was "Juan el tonto," and Señor Calle played Pigmalión. "Santorello" writing for *Blanco y Negro*, speaks of the great success with the public, but finds the mixture of reality and fantasy too difficult for him to accept. He cannot understand how a Duke can fall in love with a puppet. Santorello notes the relation of this work with those of Pirandello, Unamuno and Capek. He ends by saying:

Si un diálogo sobremanera expresivo, directo y grueso, mal avenido con el tono poético, irónico y fantástico de la obra, no entorpeciera, por momentos, su curso, *El señor de Pigmalión* tendría otras virtudes literarias que las derivadas de la concepción. Son éstas—dejando aparte la originalidad de la idea que no corresponde íntegramente al Sr. Grau, ni importa, en realidad—la vena satírica, la proyección en los muñecos de afanes humanos, nobles o egoístas, la realización plástica y la visión escénica del tema central de la obra.¹⁰

Hippolito Finat,¹¹ criticizes it unmercifully, but ends the review by referring to "el éxito de la velada."

⁶ *Revista de revistas*, Mexico, June 14, 1923, p. 31.

⁷ Letter of February 22, 1948.

⁸ "El caso Grau," *El Sol*, Madrid, Nov. 6, 1925.

⁹ No other information on this production has been available to the writer.

¹⁰ "El señor de Pigmalión," *Blanco y Negro*, Madrid, May 27, 1928.

¹¹ "Veladas Teatrales," *La Epoca*, Madrid, May 19, 1928.

Enrique Diez Canedo,¹² writing for *El Sol*, sees ties with the Russian ballet *Petrouchka*, and with Capek's *R.U.R.* He criticizes Grau's works in general, calling his style "defectuoso hasta el punto de que traducidas, ganan sus obras." He calls *El señor de Pigmalión* "algo sumamente artificioso e inocente a la vez." The figure of Pigmalión is overshadowed too much by the intrigue among the puppets. Diez Canedo thinks it is entertaining, however, and with the aid of Bartolozzi's staging, a wonderful spectacle. He says Bartolozzi and Grau were called to the stage many times by the audience and that Benito Cibrián and Pepita Meliá were very good in their parts although most of the others were not. Diez Canedo thinks Grau is far from being the great dramatist they have acknowledged him to be, but thinks it strange that the Madrid theatres do not keep their doors open to him, for he is different from other authors in the originality of his technique.

Jorge de la Cueva,¹³ in *El Debate*, thinks that Grau posed many problems in the first act which he did not develop in the remaining acts. This unsatisfied suspense is the play's greatest defect. He praises the costumes and scenery of Bartolozzi.

Enrique de Mesa,¹⁴ in *El Imparcial*, says Pigmalión was foolish in trying to create a superior humanity by creating folklore characters with many defects, Pedro de Urdemalas, Pero Grullo, etc. He lauds Bartolozzi's costumes and scenery, but thinks little of the dialogue:

. . . farsa pueril morosa y lenta . . .

. . . este curso de sus escenas ha sido aplaciente para el espectador y penoso para el oyente.

The audience listened respectfully though bored, the acting was good except for Benito Cibrián, who was stupid and exaggerated.

"Floridor" in *ABC* says Pigmalión tried to be like Prometheus in wishing to create a new humanity. The acting of Señora Meliá, Benito Cibrián and Sr. Calle was good, the rest was bad. "Floridor" does not like the dialogue but thinks the play a success in general:

Sin duda para darle infantil carácter al diálogo entre aquellas figuras, con apariencias de muñecos, el lenguaje es vulgar y plano, y, a las veces, de torpe expresión. Algunos vocablos desentonan en una obra de tal enjundia, defecto fácilmente subsanable con un discreto expurgo en el diálogo en ocasiones monocorde.

El público estrenista . . . dedicó el homenaje de sus aplausos a la bella, original y emotiva comedia de Jacinto Grau, en un acto de reparadora y merecida justicia.¹⁵

It would seem to this writer that the Spanish critics had too long been fed a fare of realistic works, so much so that when they were confronted

¹² "El señor de Pigmalión," *El Sol*, Madrid, May 19, 1928.

¹³ "Cinematógrafos y teatros," Madrid, May 19, 1928.

¹⁴ "De la vida teatral," Madrid, May 19, 1928.

¹⁵ "El señor de Pigmalión," Madrid, May 19, 1928.

with a play with the depth and imagination of *El señor de Pigmalión*, they could not accept the non-realistic characters and action. Their criticisms are essentially derogatory, yet most of them end with a statement of having thoroughly enjoyed the play.

As it seems to be common in the case of Grau, the critics who judge his plays by reading them, rather than by witnessing their performance, think more highly of them.

Arturo Berenguer Carisomo speaks of the mixture of reality and fiction in the play and then adds:

... es lo que hace de esta admirable comedia una producción de atrevimiento pirandelliano, pero de un "pirandellismo" más dinámico, más teatral y quien sabe sino más útil, como exposición y como enseñanza, que el del propio Pirandello.¹⁶

Angel Valbuena Prat says:

El señor de Pigmalión es a la vez tradición y novedad. Autor y personajes, farsa y hondura crítica, teatro infantil y amplitud de concepción intelectual, se unen a la vez a Cervantes y Pirandello . . . los procedimientos escénicos, la realidad e ilusión en plano cortante hacen pensar en la técnica pirandelliana.¹⁷

Ana M. Calvente de Helmbold¹⁸ calls it an example of the grotesque genre. She thinks it penetrating, profound, sincere, and humorous, neither too ridiculous nor too tragic.

It is unfortunate that this play has never been produced in the United States. Whether one agrees with the attackers or the defenders of Jacinto Grau, as even Diez Canedo admitted, the play is very original in its conception and should be produced. It is possible that a presentation of it on the Broadway stage might earn *El señor de Pigmalión* a place by the side of *R.U.R.* and *Sei personaggi in cerca d'autore* for its originality in conception and technique, and high artistic quality.

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¹⁶ *Crítica dramática*, Buenos Aires, Tor, [1933 or 1934], p. 134.

¹⁷ *Historia de la literatura española*, Barcelona, Gili, 1937, vol. II, p. 819.

¹⁸ "Jacinto Grau en el *Sr. de Pigmalión*," *Conducta*, Buenos Aires, no. 22, Sept.-Oct. 1942 (7 pp. unnumbered).

*The Aural-Oral Approach at Indiana State Teachers College**

IT SHOULD take me much less than the ten minutes allotted me to state my position on the use of the aural-oral approach in the teaching of French at Indiana State Teachers College.

In the first place, we have been using a form of this approach for the past twenty years, and I personally had my ears batted down twenty-five years ago at Indianapolis for daring to recommend it. It was about that time, or a little later, that we began experimenting with the Cleveland Plan, of which we still use an adaptation at I.S.T.C., although the passing of the years and added experience have tempered our earlier youthful enthusiasm and led us to make some concessions to certain hard realities.

Over thirty years ago, when I left the University of Michigan to start a department of romance languages at Indiana State, the head of my department at the university wished me the best of luck but added, with some misgivings, that of course I must realize that the normal school was not ideal soil in which to cultivate foreign language courses. I must say that the administration of our college has always been friendly to foreign languages, but the combined enrollments in Latin, German, French, and Spanish barely amount to 10% of the total enrollment in the college. There is no foreign language requirement for the B.S. degree, and there will soon be none for the A.B. degree.

There was a time when I should have opposed the elimination of the foreign language requirement, but my viewpoint has changed. A department store does not display a sign warning customers that they must be prepared to spend \$200 if they want to come in. Instead, they place interesting small items in the windows to attract you, hoping to sell you a bigger bill of goods once you are inside. I believe it might be well to make it possible for any student to sample foreign languages before deciding whether or not he wishes to continue. If, at the end of one term, there is no appeal for him in that field, he may do well to shop elsewhere. But the knowledge that he can sample our wares, without committing himself further, may attract many promising students now prevented by our minimum requirements from having any opportunity for a foreign language experience.

One fine result of the limited enrollment in foreign language courses in

* A paper presented at the French Section of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association, at its Annual Meeting, held in Cleveland, April 29-30, 1949.

our college is that our department gets the cream of the crop, only those students who want languages and are determined to have them in spite of active anti-foreign-language propaganda on the campus. (Incidentally, 32.8% of the students in my classes this term are on the honor roll, which indicates that we must get a large percentage of the better students. We couldn't put them on the honor roll unaided.)

On the other hand, an inevitable and unfavorable result of the small enrollment in foreign languages is a small teaching force, restricting offerings and the number of sections in elementary work. In spite of this drawback, it has been possible for us to secure foreign student teachers, whom the administration welcomes for budgetary reasons, and whom we can use for drill purposes in our first-year work. But as it takes nearly a year to train them to understand what we expect of them, they are replaced by new trainees just as they are beginning to be valuable.

We cannot give more than four hours' credit for a twelve-week term even though the students meet eight hours per week, nor can a regular member of the department be paid for eight hours' work when only four hours of credit are given. We offer the option of four hours per week, without outside preparation, hoping thus to offer an inducement to students to put in the eight hours. However, such is the press of other required courses, as well as of the seventy-four extra-curricular activities on the campus that, out of a class of over thirty in first-year French this term, only a half dozen are attending the drill hour which precedes the hour's regular class-room work offered by a regular faculty member. This skeleton attendance (optional, of course, in a college where foreign languages are all but crowded out by required work) is not sufficient to provide a basis on which to judge results, in spite of the fact that we have an exceptionally intelligent and capable foreign student in charge of the drill this year.

The college cannot, the teachers college certainly cannot offer conditions even remotely approximating those of the ASTP. Its aims, its incentives are too different, its equipment, its personnel too restricted to compete with Uncle Sam, even if we wanted to, which we emphatically do not. Until the millennium comes and we have more than four hours of our students' time per week, we shall have to be content with providing them with a knowledge of the structure of the language and abundant practical use of it, within the limits imposed by our curriculum, in addition to which we hope to develop in them an appreciation of the foreign literature and a sympathetic attitude toward foreign cultures and ideals that will make for better world citizenship.

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Languages in Action

INTRODUCTION

IT IS the custom at Mount Hermon School for each department to present an assembly program before the student body. Mount Hermon is an independent secondary school of 500 boys. The Science Department usually illustrates the effect of latest scientific discoveries on our way of living. The History Department stresses current events. Such type programs are related to the students' every-day needs and interests and therefore are successful. The Language Department is handicapped by the fact that it is dealing with a medium which is intelligible only to those students studying languages.

When the Language Department met to discuss its assembly program, several suggestions came forth. Short skits in French, Spanish, and German were proposed. A Chapel service could feature hymns and prayers in Latin. Programs illustrating the contributions of foreign countries to the fields of music, art and literature were mentioned as possibilities. The role played by foreigners in the making of America was another suggestion.

While there is some merit in all these plans, they either lack in general appeal (foreign language skits) or else stress the cultural aspects of language teaching, the area given least attention at the secondary level. Therefore, it was finally decided that the Language Department assembly would have to demonstrate that the teaching of foreign languages serves a vital purpose in the world today.

THE PLAN

Today the world is striving for international understanding. Here languages can and do play a most important part. The next step in planning the assembly was simply the logical carrying through of this line of reasoning. Why not stage a meeting of the United Nations General Assembly? With such a program many foreign languages could be used (and understood by all through the interpreters) in a realistic, meaningful situation. The advantages of understanding foreign languages would be illustrated as well as their vital importance in international discussions. The student would also learn how the United Nations Assembly functions.

STAGING

The proper staging for such a program can do much to help create the desired atmosphere and build up interest. Mimeographed programs, re-

produced below, were distributed by ushers to the students as they entered the auditorium.

The "delegates" from the twelve nations not on the steering committee were already seated (scattered through the auditorium) when the student body entered. Each "delegate" held a six foot pole on which was mounted a 12 by 18 inch card with the name of his country. Thus, the school auditorium became the meeting chamber of the General Assembly.

UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY

In Special Session at Camp Hall
February 26, 1948

Business for the day: Permanent site for United Nations Headquarters.

<i>Delegates</i>	<i>Nations</i>	<i>Languages</i>
President:		
Raymond Fitch	Brazil	English
Vice-Presidents:		
Richard Kim	China	Chinese
Robert Cobiella	Cuba	Spanish
William Carson	France	French
David Kempers	Mexico	Spanish
Nicholas Strachoff	U.S.S.R.	Russian
Ross Brown	United Kingdom	English
Philip Barton	United States	English

Chairman of Permanent Committees:

1. Peter Townsend—Political & Security	Luxemburg	German
2. Manuel Fernandez—Economic & Financial	Chile	Spanish
3. Edmund Majewski—Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural	Poland	Polish
4. Woodruff Smith—Trusteeship	New Zealand	English
5. William Gould—Administrative & Budget	India	Hindustani
6. Munthir Khayr—Legal	Syria	Arabic

(The above 14 nations constitute the steering committee which coordinates the proceedings of the Assembly and its members.)

Jeremiah Ellsworth	Argentina	Spanish
Tomas Hexner	Czechoslovakia	Czech
John Sherman	Dominican Republic	Spanish
George Lambrakis	Greece	Greek
Arturo Figueroa	Guatemala	Spanish
William Browning	Iran	Persian
James Granady	Liberia	English
David Bolger	Netherlands	Dutch
Arne Jahr	Norway	Norwegian
Bruce Storms	Panama	Spanish
Carl Swanson	Sweden	Swedish
Warner Dewey	Turkey	Turkish

Secretary-General: Burton Hatheway

Messenger: Leon Farwell

Interpreters:

Allan Scheinblum—English
Richard Franklin—French
Jack Fong—Chinese

Rimas Kregzde—Russian
Jorge Villagran—Spanish

This assembly is presented by a Language Department Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Patouillet, assisted by Messrs. Baxter, Guarnaccia, Stetson, Loewus, and the students named above with the cooperation of Messrs. Meany and Baker of the History Department.

The "delegates" from the nations forming the steering committee were on the stage, seated behind a semicircular arrangement of five tables. Platforms were used to raise the tables a foot off the stage floor, thus improving the effect and vision from the audience. Stage curtains covered the front of the tables and platforms and gave the illusion of one large semicircular table. Each place was marked by a 4 by 12 inch card with the name of the country. Behind the President's chair on the rear curtain hung a large reproduction on heavy paper of the United Nations flag.

A table at the extreme left and on the apron of the stage was for the interpreters: English, French, Chinese, Russian, Spanish. While a "delegate" spoke, all "interpreters" made believe they were busy with their simultaneous translations. Only the French and English interpreters, of course, were called upon to translate aloud. Each "interpreter" wore headphones, and a radio receiver and microphones on the table helped create an atmosphere of reality. This table was labeled INTERPRETERS.

The curtain was drawn when the student body entered the auditorium. It was opened after the President (the "delegate" from Brazil) had made the following introductory remarks in front of the curtain:

This morning Camp Hall is the scene of a meeting of the United Nations General Assembly. A committee of 14 members coordinates the proceedings and is composed of the President, seven Vice-Presidents, and the six Committee Chairmen. The countries listed on your program form the actual steering committee now working at Lake Success.

All speeches are translated into the five official languages: English, French, Chinese, Russian, and Spanish. These translations are practically simultaneous with the original speech and may be heard through headphones. Each delegate may listen to the speech in the desired language by simply turning a switch and adjusting his headphones.

In addition to these simultaneous translations, all speeches are of course translated aloud into French and English, the working languages of the U. N.

And now, imagine if you will that you are a delegate from one of the 57 member nations. Each nation may have five delegates and five alternates, but only one vote. Imagine too, that I am the delegate from Brazil, the President of the General Assembly.

Delegates of the United Nations, it is time to start our meeting! Let us enter the meeting chamber of the General Assembly!

(Curtain is opened as the President says the last word of his speech. He turns around and walks to his place. Delegates and interpreters are seen standing about, chatting.)

THE SCRIPT

The script dealt with the choice of a permanent site for the United Nations. This topic was suggested by the Chairman of the History Department. The actual discussions of a year and a half were condensed into a 25 minute program. As the Hermon library keeps its back copies of *The New York Times* for only a year, primary sources were not available. This topic, it will be recalled, was the subject of debate before December, 1946. It was chosen because it was felt that a topic not currently an issue would be best for our first experiment with this type assembly. The library preserves all issues of news magazines, however, and the general views and stands of nations were gathered from these. Reasons for a particular nation's position were rarely given, however, in the weekly digests. These had to be furnished, making them plausible with subsequent events.

One of the first problems met was that of getting Latin into the script. The answer was suggested by a student: "Have the Pope send a message to the U.N. wishing it success in its quest for peace." The idea was promptly adopted.

Another problem was that of deciding the course of the discussion. Europe and the Western Hemisphere were the areas most frequently proposed for the permanent site. After statements from all the "delegates," a motion was made to narrow the discussion to either Europe or the Western Hemisphere. The vote was in favor of the Western Hemisphere. Shortly after this vote was taken a telegram from John D. Rockefeller, Jr. was delivered to the Secretary-General. Mr. Rockefeller had been following the deliberations by radio and was offering the U.N. a six block area for a world skyscraper capital. A move was made to accept the offer and 21 nations voted for the motion. Greece, India, and Turkey voted against it with Iran and Syria abstaining.

It soon became apparent that if every foreign speech were to be translated into French and then into English, the program might tend to lag and lose interest. After five minutes, therefore, a "delegate" moved that in view of the limited time and unusual circumstances of the meeting the French translations should be omitted. The vote was unanimous in favor of the motion.

A difficulty presented itself with the need for having German in the script since it is one of the languages taught at Hermon. This obstacle was overcome by having the "delegate" from Luxemburg speak in German.

The complete script was first written in English. Each "delegate" was given a copy of his speech to be translated into his "native" tongue. The "delegate" could call on any member of the Language Department for

assistance. Integrating the script was necessarily the work of one faculty member in order to insure continuity.

CONCLUSION

The general reaction to this Language Assembly was extremely favorable. The school felt that a U.N. Assembly should become a yearly affair.

The faculty and student body were amazed at the number of foreign languages (16) represented. Admittedly, the level of proficiency varied greatly, but with a little assistance the "delegate" was able to at least express the desired idea in the foreign tongue.

The value of having one department (History) contribute to the assembly program of another should not be overlooked from the standpoint of faculty and inter-departmental relationships.

Another advantage of this kind of program is that it gives many students an opportunity to participate. Also, as few speeches were over six lines in length and as most "delegates" spoke only once, learning lines was no problem. Any "delegate" could of course refer to his notes. The nature of the program made numerous rehearsals unnecessary. As a matter of fact, at Hermon, because of the school's unique work program, only one complete rehearsal was possible.

It should be added that the United Nations Organization publishes much valuable material which it will send to a teacher free for the asking. The United Nations Association rents a complete set of U.N. flags for a nominal fee. These add color and reality to a program.

The Language Department felt that its program had illustrated in a very real way the vital importance of foreign languages in the greatest of all human endeavors, the search for peace.

RAYMOND PATOUILLET

Mount Hermon School for Boys
Mount Hermon, Mass.

Notes and News

Slavic Studies at Wayne University

The creation of a department of Slavic languages and literatures at Wayne University to combine under one administrative unit the courses offered in Russian and Polish has been announced by Dean Victor A. Rapport of the College of Liberal Arts. Courses in both fields have been available over a number of years.

The study of Russian was introduced at Wayne University in 1943 and the curriculum gradually expanded to include advanced work in conversation and literature. Finally, in 1948, a course in scientific Russian was added to the curriculum for the special benefit of the students in science fields. Wayne was the first institution of higher learning in the United States to offer such a course.

Instruction in Polish was first offered at Wayne in September of 1947 with full credit towards fulfillment of language requirements.

Wayne has been active not only in instructional work in Slavic fields, but in Slavic language research. Preliminary phases of a study to determine word-frequency in the Russian language were undertaken in 1948 with the support of a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation. Later, a major grant from the same source made possible full-scale research in the field, the two grants totalling \$42,000. Professor Harry Josselson, of the Slavic languages staff, is in charge of the project.

International Academy of Spanish in Saltillo

The International Academy of Spanish, Saltillo, Mexico, is offering a number of new courses in the 1950 summer session. These include an advanced course in Latin American Literature, Flora and Fauna of Mexico, Prevention and Tropical Diseases, and a complete program for beginning students. Heretofore, the courses have been exclusively for intermediate and advanced Spanish students. Now beginners may elect from a possible seven-hour daily program.

The two teacher plan is to be used in beginning vocabulary and oral composition classes, in which a native Spanish-speaking teacher cooperates with an English-speaking instructor. Elementary conversation is conducted in classes of four to six, while the intermediate and advanced conversation is given by the individual tutor plan.

The 1950 session will be held in the Escuela Normal, Saltillo, Mexico, from July 3 to August 11. Advanced registration may be made by writing the Registrar: Miss Mary Wise, Box 343, Oblong, Illinois.

German Nativity Play Presented at Oberlin College

A large group of beginning German students at Oberlin College presented "Toward Bethlehem—A Nativity Play" by Erich Bockemuhl, at the home of their instructor, Mrs. Maria Stumpke Hendrichs. There were several performances.

Students had studied Albrecht Dürer's nativity scenes and designed the sets and costumes after the manner of his work. Preparation of the program provided study not only of the German language and the medieval German Christmas plays but German music and art as well. The production was small and simple, in keeping with the simplicity of the Bethlehem manger.

Meetings

DECEMBER CONFERENCE AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY ON THE TEACHING OF ITALIAN IN NEW YORK

The nation's teachers must answer the challenge posed by America's position of world leadership, according to Dr. William Jansen, New York City's Superintendent of Schools.

Speaking before the first Conference on the Study and Teaching of Italian at Columbia University's Casa Italiana, Dr. Jansen pointed out that "never before in our history have our people been asked to think intelligently about so many acute international situations.

"Because in a democratic society, every citizen is called upon to take part in the expression of opinion," he continued, "it is vitally important that every citizen think temperately and straight on international questions.

Such thinking, Dr. Jansen explained, can be greatly facilitated by the study of languages which "somehow breaks down strangeness and brings peoples closer together."

Pointing out that Italian is one of six modern languages taught in the city's school system, Dr. Jansen declared that "interest in the study of Italian has grown by leaps and bounds since the war. More than 10,000 students are now enrolled in Italian classes."

Emphasizing the importance of accelerating present Italian studies, Dr. Jansen said, "we feel the study of Italian well worth fostering, first of all because of the great wealth of humanistic tradition and culture which the language carries with it. Italy's strategic position, moreover, in the political, economic and cultural life of Europe, has conferred new contemporary importance on the language. In today's world-wide struggle of ideologies, Italy is a pivotal center of Western culture."

Dr. Jansen was the principal speaker during the morning session at the Casa Italiana, where more than 100 teachers of Italian from secondary schools and colleges in the metropolitan area met to hear general educators and language specialists discuss the teaching of their subject.

James Marshall, New York City Commissioner of Education, re-emphasized the cultural contribution of Italy and the Italian language. Declaring that "so much of our Western culture is based on the contributions of Italy, Mr. Marshall said that "her great men of the past laid the basis for what is fine in so many fields—art, architecture, music and literature. In the field of music alone, at least an elementary knowledge of Italian is indispensable. One cannot think of the opera without thinking of Italian; one cannot conceive of painting without including the great masters of the Renaissance.

"It is gratifying, therefore, to know that the study of Italian is increasing in our schools and that the enrollment now exceeds ten thousand students. May it continue to grow and may an increasing number of our pupils study this beautiful language, which is the key to so many treasures of the past and present."

Professor Howard R. Marraro, executive officer of the Columbia University Italian Department and chairman of the conference, opened the morning session by tracing briefly the development of Italian studies in the United States during the past two hundred years.

The issues to be discussed by the conference, he continued, "include the problem of introducing Italian in more high schools and colleges, the problem of attracting more students to Italian courses, the problem of teacher training, the problem of textbooks, and the problem of the general didactic correlation of Italian with other languages."

The other speakers on the morning program included Mrs. Ruth S. Shoup, a member of the Board of Higher Education; the Reverend Joseph Krug, principal of the Archbishop Stepinac High School in White Plains, N. Y.; Dr. Louis M. Hacker, director of Columbia University's School of General Studies; Dr. Theodore Huebener, director of foreign language instruction in the New York City high schools, and a representative of the College Entrance Examination Board.

After the general meeting, the group divided to attend three panel discussion groups concerned individually with the problems of teaching Italian in junior and senior high schools and colleges.

Luncheon was served at 1 P.M. at the Men's Faculty Club, 400 West 117th Street. The entire conference was sponsored by the Columbia University Italian Department.

In an address to be delivered at the luncheon, Vito F. Lanza, vice president of the New York City Board of Education, proposed that the City, "because of its size, resources and cosmopolitanism is in a unique position to establish a school of government service."

Declaring that specialized high schools had been set up for gifted students and for particular types of training, Mr. Lanza said that with the "dominant role which the United States will undoubtedly play in world affairs for many years to come, the demand for trained officials will be a steady one."

Other luncheon speakers scheduled were Dr. Aldo M. Mazio, Italian consul-general in New York City; Dr. Jacob Greenberg, Associate Superintendent of Schools; the Reverend John P. Breheny, assistant superintendent of the Diocesan Schools in New York and the Very Reverend Msgr. Joseph Pernicone, Pastor of the Church of Our Lady of Mount Carmel.

EIN GOETHE ABEND

The German Club of the Department of Foreign Languages of Illinois Wesleyan University, in cooperation with the Department of Music of the University, presented in November an excellent program in honor of Goethe's 200th Birthday Celebration.

The Welcome Address was given by Dr. M. J. Holmes, President of the University. The other speakers were: Professor Marvella E. Stubbe, Department of Foreign Languages, who spoke of "Goethe's Message from Aspen"; Professor George T. Osborn, Department of Social Science, spoke on "Goethe's Views on Politics"; Professor C. H. Long, Department of Natural Science discussed "Goethe's Scientific Theories"; and Professor W. E. Schultz, Department of Humanities, discussed "Goethe's Voice in World Literature."

Three professors of the Department of Music: Professors Gretchen Van Roy, Lloyd Pfautsch, and George L. Scott, with the assistance of several students, presented a very attractive and appropriate program of German Music.

In order to insure uninterrupted delivery of the *Journal*, members whose subscriptions have expired should renew them now, either through their regional associations or directly through the Business Manager, Mr. Stephen L. Pitcher, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri.

Reviews

Contes modernes. (Edited by Members of the Department of French, Yale University.) Revised Edition. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1949, pp. xxii+386. Price, \$3.00.

The 1935 edition of *Contes modernes* has been "drastically" revised as to both content and editing "The center of gravity has shifted from the late nineteenth well into the present century." After all, the twentieth century is half over. Nevertheless, there is some risk—a necessary risk—in choosing authors who have not been tested by time.

The editors have lowered their sights somewhat as far as prospective readers are concerned. Whereas the earlier edition discussed and illustrated an elaborate method of *explication de textes* and supplied few notes and no vocabulary, the revised edition provides a general introduction, an introductory notice to each author, a questionnaire for each story, antivocabulary-thumbing footnotes, and a rather thorough vocabulary. Even so, the collection is not easy. The selections are intact and unsimplified, and the vocabulary, though omitting common and obvious words, runs to more than 4500 entries. Finally the questionnaires referred to above contain the most thought-provoking questions I have ever seen. The editors have admittedly aimed the book at the third-year level.

Contes modernes is firmly anchored in Daudet and Maupassant. The old chestnuts such as "La dernière classe" and "La parure" have given way to fresher and heavier fare such as "Les trois messes basses" and "Le petit fût." Zola's "Printemps" and "Hiver" seem juvenile beside the mature Daudet and Maupassant, though Zola showed promise in "Hiver." There is no lack of variety in the collection, which includes also Villiers de l'Isle-Adam, Anatole France, Jules Lemaitre, Rémy de Gourmont, Gide, Proust, Duhamel, Mauriac, Giono, Saint Exupéry, Malraux, Aymé, Sartre, and Camus. There is not one dull selection in the book.

La Bruyère said, "Tout est dit," and Anatole France replied, "Aucun n'a tout dit." It seems as if the writers of the last fifty years or so have been trying desperately to live up to France's dictum. They have been attempting to split the atom of human motivation. They have found big gaps within the atom and have often left them between the lines. Such literature should stimulate and worry students considerably.

Unfortunately the text is marred by a great number of errata involving punctuation, accents, missing and adventitious letters, dates, etc. The alert student could profit by the experience of ferreting out the errors.

In an age when it is customary to dilute education in an effort to make it more palatable to the average or sub-average student, it is encouraging to find teachers who offer mature literature straight.

HENRY L. ROBINSON

Baylor University

HILLS, E. C., AND DONDO, MATHURIN, *La France, Son Histoire, Sa Civilisation, Cours Élémentaire*, revised edition. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1949, pp. vii+309. Price, \$1.60.

Teachers of French are grateful to Professor Dondo for this revised edition of a text that has been valued so highly for many years because of its able presentation of the cultural aspects

of France and her language. The controlled vocabulary, the simplicity of language, and the interesting manner in which the important episodes of the nation's history were related caused the text in its earlier editions to be appreciated for its ability to arouse the student's interest in France, and to excite his curiosity to learn more of the nation's history and literature.

The text in its revised form has become more valuable, since there have been recognized the changes brought about by the events of the last decade. There have been added also two chapters, *La Deuxième Grande Guerre*, and *La Quatrième République*. With these additional pages, there are pictures of some of the personages connected with the more recent events, and also of some incidents as: *Le Débarquement Des Troupes Alliées En Normandie*, and *Les Halles Pendant L'Occupation Allemande*.

Obviously, as in the earlier editions, the same care has been exercised to give the student adequate training in the recognition of verb-forms. In general, this is accomplished very skillfully and naturally. However, the sudden appearance of the present indicative in the following passage is rather surprising:

"Les Allemands occupèrent alors une grande partie de la France. Pétain devint le chef du gouvernement. Comme Paris était entre les mains de l'ennemi, ce gouvernement s'établit à Vichy, petite ville du centre de la France, célèbre par ses eaux minérales. Le désir du maréchal Pétain va maintenant être satisfait. Il se donne les pouvoirs d'un dictateur. Toutes les libertés sont abolies.

"Mais beaucoup de Français, très dévoués à leur patrie, ne voulaient pas accepter l'armistice. . ."

With enthusiasm, and without any reservation, the book can be recommended for second- and third-semester classes as well as for the course in French civilization. It is safe to predict that there will be in each case a response of enthusiasm from both teacher and students.

VIRGIL A. WARREN

Georgetown College
Georgetown, Kentucky

BART, BENJAMIN F., *La France, Carrefour des civilisations*. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1949, pp. x+277. Price, \$2.00.

There is no more difficult task in the field of French textbooks than the preparation of a reader for beginners at the college level—unless it be a grammar for beginners. It is a question of providing subject-matter that will interest more or less mature minds possessing a minimum of linguistic equipment. Professor Bart has met the challenge; his text will insult no student's intelligence.

The book is strictly a reader; it is not readily adaptable to an oral approach. The vocabulary runs to about 3500 words. There are no exercises. The student will read the text for "comprehension," that is he will translate it (the foreword addressed to the student and the footnotes indicate that such is the author's intent). After all, the most practical reason for studying French is gaining access through reading to the most significant culture of the last two thousand years.

In the Preface, Professor Bart discusses the problems he had to solve: (1) selection of the material, (2) aids to the student, (3) editing the texts. The selections comprise history and all phases of *civilization*, including liberal servings of literature, the whole expertly woven together with background and transitions. A preliminary chapter on cognates and word families, together with helpful hints in the footnotes (e.g. uses of *de*) and a device for calling attention to false cognates in the text constitute a kind of functional grammar. The subjunctive, the past definite, and the past anterior are avoided until page 80; at that point a short chapter briefs the student on these forms and uses before he plunges on. Similarly, the vocabulary load is held down (relatively) until page 147, where the limit is raised to obviate oversimplification. The editing is of the highest order: Montaigne, Descartes, Voltaire, Rousseau, Chateaubriand,

Maupassant, Zola *et alii* have fared very well. Chronologically, the selections range from Joinville to Sartre.

There are some minor flaws, many of which are mere typographical errors; a few others are small matters of fact or judgment

Page 22, line 7 (also page 22, line 17; page 25, lines 13 and 21; page 85, heading, and page headings through page 144; page 128, line 1, heading, and fine print; also pages iv and viii, and *Vocabulaire*): *culture* should read *civilisation* as passim. In spite of the current tendency to confuse these words, good usage ascribes *culture* to individuals and *civilisation* to nations.

Page 44, fine print: *definitive* should read *définitive*.

Page 73, note 19: *En ce moment-là* should read *A ce moment-là* or *A cette époque-là*.

Page 78, line 26: *trainaux* should read *traîneaux*.

Page 79, fine print: *sur l'Ile d'Elbe* should read *dans l'Ile d'Elbe* or perhaps *à l'Ile d'Elbe*; *II termine* should read *Il termine*.

Page 82, note 7: omit "and *tant que*" (this conjunction is never followed by the past anterior)

Page 83, bottom: omit "*faillir* and" (the subjunctive of *faillir* is regular and rare).

Page 90, line 16: *garde fous* should read *garde-fous*.

Page 98: DESCARTES, *Discours de la méthode* should read DESCARTES, *Méditations métaphysiques*.

Page 99, note 6: *page 65* should read *page 66*.

Page 105, line 26: *précisément* should read *précisément*.

Page 106, line 12: *Chacun des trois*—who besides Micromégas and the Saturnian?

Page 115, note 10: *Ste.-Hélène* should read *Ste-Hélène* (cf. Mme).

Page 132, note 2: *il est allemand*—but Professor von Wartburg is a (German-speaking) Swiss.

Page 138, note 11: "In French, the author addresses the 'gentle reader' as *tu*—"but usually in the third person, if I remember rightly.

Page 167, line 29: *suspectes* should read *suspects*.

Page 169, line 8: *balance*, a deceptive cognate, is not so marked.

Page 176, line 20: *nappe* [tablecloth] should read *nappe* [sheet or expanse].

Page 188, line 5: *nos lits étaient tous près du grand lit* should perhaps read . . . *tout près . . .* (the original text reads *nos lits*—there were two—*voisinaient avec le grand lit*).

Page 189, fine print: *d'après la nature* should read *d'après nature*.

Page 196, line 33: *on l'a retrouvé ce portefeuille* should read *on l'a retrouvé, ce portefeuille*.

Page 199, line 5: *pointe de Raz* should read *pointe du Raz* (as correctly in the same selection).

Page 202, line 13: *P'eau étale et cache* should read *P'eau étale* [slack or still] *cache* (very different meaning).

Page 212, fine print: *un découverte* should read *une découverte*.

I have not checked the *Vocabulaire* thoroughly. A few errata, discovered at a glance, may be worth noting. Several nouns marked as feminine are in fact masculine: *champ*, *espace*, *porche*, *portefeuille*, *reproche*, *royaume*. Contrariwise, *vitre* is feminine, not masculine as marked. The infinitives *défaire* and *siffler* are labeled nouns, feminine and masculine respectively. The noun *fuile* (feminine) is not labeled. *Martyr* is marked *m. & f.* without change of form (read *martyr, re*). *Féconde* is listed in the feminine although elsewhere regular adjectives are given in the masculine; cf. also *tomber raide morte*. *Vile* is characterized as adverb and adjective, whereas *inconcevable* is not labeled. *Savant* is said to be the present participle of *savoir*. Both *faillir de faire* and *à peur de* are incorrect. The initial accent of *éternellement* is wanting. Amiens is not in northeastern France.

In spite of the errors noted above, which can be corrected in subsequent printings, *La France, Carrefour des civilisations* is an important addition to the list of first-year readers.

HENRY L. ROBINSON

Baylor University

FALLS, WILLIAM F., *Le Message Humain de Georges Duhamel*, Boivin & Cie., France, 1948, pp. 103.

We hear ex-GI's blaming the French people for their lack of energy and effort to put France back on her feet. But, insists Professor Fall, the average GI, because of the peculiarity of his soldier existence and his lack of familiarity with the French language, is in no position to judge.

Georges Duhamel is a good representative of the French nation to present their case. He is a bourgeois, a representative of the "petit peuple." Success, fortune, and honors have not materially altered his point of view—his feeling of humanity toward man. Now, in his sixties, a member of the Académie française, he has kept his strong ties with the people, "les petits gens"—from among whom he came. Says Professor Falls: "En effet, sa façon d'accepter la vie, son existence laborieuse, comme aussi sa pensée volontaire et son optimisme le rapprochent de très près du 'Français moyen'—." He adds: "—pour l'étranger désireux de juger avec justice le Français d'après-guerre, une bonne connaissance de la vie et de l'oeuvre de George Duhamel sera d'un très grand secours. C'est ainsi que s'explique le sens du mot de 'message' dans le titre de cet essai."

Georges Duhamel started out as a sensitive, not-too-strong youngster. The ugliness and brutality met in life outside his home worried him. But he had a certain determination to pull through—to surmount obstacles. He had a strong, courageous mother. Her example of fortitude and optimism had always inspired him. As a child, he had a not-too-certain economic status since his father was inclined to change jobs so often. Duhamel, Sr., even graduated in medicine—when too old to derive much economic benefit from the profession. As a young man, Georges Duhamel managed somehow to go through school, travel, and graduate from medical school.

Duhamel knew how to face life. As philosopher, artist, poet, and physician, he accepted life as it presented itself. In the first World War, as army doctor, he volunteered to care for gangrene cases in an isolation tent. He practices his theories as expressed in *Evasion? Acceptation*. Essentially, it is that man can be content with a hum-drum, unglamorous existence if he will accept it and see its little happenings with quiet, affectionate understanding.

According to Professor Falls, Duhamel deplores the modern world's concentration on materialism. Duhamel says the world needs more idealism.

When the second World War was in the offing, Duhamel stood for pacifism—for fraternal understanding. But when it became plain that Germany stood only for stubborn aggression, Duhamel called for France to take arms. And during the Occupation, he refused to collaborate. He remained optimistic, awaiting a better day and continuing his writing as he could.

Professor Falls states that Duhamel seeks vainly to believe in God, and yet he advocates a manner of living which "tend sans cesse vers le haut." Duhamel insists that "le propre de l'homme n'est pas de vivre comme font simplement les bêtes et les plantes, c'est de chercher le sens de la vie." Man can always "—aller contre la force des choses."

Professor Falls' analysis, one feels, is given with studious care. He makes no startling observations. He presents a picture; he advances theories; then he quotes Duhamel's writings or actions to substantiate those theories. As a result, the reader feels he has seen an honest picture of the man, Duhamel, and has also gained greater insight into the heart of the "petit peuple" of France.

ELIZABETH C. WALTERS

Battle Creek High School
Battle Creek, Michigan

SISTER M. JOHANNELLA FIECKE, O.S.F., *The Revival of Catholic Literature in Twentieth-Century Germany*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin, 1944. (Marquette University Dissertation.)

The study begins by tracing literary, philosophical, and religious trends in the major literary movements which preceded the Catholic literary revival, such as the "protestant" classi-

cism of the eighteenth and the practically contemporaneous "catholic" romanticism during the closing years of the eighteenth and the early decades of the nineteenth centuries. Then the author goes on to the "post-romantic" period of the nineteenth century, out of certain tendencies of which there grew a "national Catholicism" and the Catholic literary revival. The philosophical, social, and political forces which helped to bring this about, particularly the *Kulturkampf* of the Bismarck era, are treated at some length. In the second, the major part of the study the writer concentrates upon the individual writers who brought about the Catholic literary Renaissance, the two schools of thought and style which arose, the "Progressive" headed by Karl Muth and the "Conservative" led by Richard von Kralik, and the resultant and unfortunate *Literaturstreit* with its bitter enmities, its discords and discouragements. The presentation of this unhappy development to English-reading students marks essentially the important contribution of the dissertation.

There follow brief discussions of Catholic writers, beginning of course with Enrica von Handel-Mazzetti, who remains in many respects the most illustrious of them all from a distinctly Catholic standpoint, and treating in due course Heinrich Federer, Gertrud von Le Fort, Peter Dörfler, Ruth Schaumann, Franz Herwig, and Theodore Haecker as representative literary types. Then a number of important figures, many of them better known, are presented as representative of literary movements. This appears to me to be somewhat unfortunate; some of the writers chosen are not exactly representative of Catholic doctrine or of the Catholic literary Renaissance and can scarcely be limited to any one literary movement. Hermann Bahr, Stefan George, Hugo von Hofmannsthal, R. M. Rilke are presented as impressionists; Hermann Stehr, Nanny Lambrecht as naturalists, Hans Carossa, Jakob Kneip as exponents of New Realism, and Leo Weismantel and Franz J. Weinrich as expressionists. These evaluations are the weakest part of the entire study. Not only did many of these writers grow away from the Church in spirit and become part of the larger literary expressions of their time, but the author seems unable to comprehend and appreciate their larger significance, both from a spiritual and literary point of view. And this is the great weakness of the dissertation on the whole, that it approaches the entire problem from a too sectarian basis. The analyses of the individual figures are general, unaesthetic, seemingly to a great extent second-hand and dependent upon what some literary historian or critic has said. Certain errors, such as the erroneous report of Handel-Mazzetti's death in 1939, should be corrected.

In appendices a comparative study of Catholic literary revivals in other countries is given, also a list of the publications of representative writers, and an extensive bibliography as well as a useful index. The book is well organized and printed. As a dissertation it does not present, attack or defend one specific literary problem and carry it through; it presents rather a general history, an extensive study of the German Catholic Renaissance in recent decades from the Catholic standpoint, somewhat uncritically, and in this particular makes a contribution for the use of English-speaking students. It is less satisfactory in its presentation and analyses of individual writers, and it might have discussed at greater length the important Catholic literary periodicals and publishing houses which accompanied or grew out of the Revival.

F. P. WAHR

University of Michigan

KUERSCHNERS *Deutscher Literatur-Kalender 1949*. (Edited by Dr. Friedrich Bertkau, volume LI.) Walter de Gruyter and Co., Berlin, 1949, pp. ix+742.

There is hardly a German department of any American college or High School which will not be glad to know that the Who's Who in German literature finally reappeared after its initial starvation and suppression under Hitler.

When the destroyer of German culture took over, his vassals were busy imitating him; Dr. Martin Elster, for instance, the last editor of the Kuerschner under Hitler, excluded the

very important Jewish and émigré group among the German writers and so it happened that the last volumes of the Kuerschner did not count in the glorious names of Thomas and Heinrich Mann, of Werfel, Arnold and Stefan Zweig, and many others. The new volume represents a first attempt of a reawakened Germany to right the wrongs which this great country did to itself.

No country, no culture can remain in isolation for a longer period of time without great damage to the volume of its knowledge. While the editor has to be congratulated on his magnificent attempt to revive an important publication and to make usable again a necessary tool of reference, omissions and errors have occurred which will be corrected, without doubt, next year:

The reviewer feels sorry that the name of the important Austrian writer, Friderike Maria Zweig, is missing; the great poet, Karl Wolfskehl, is listed under his old Munich address while he died this year after a long and painful exile in New Zealand. Looking through the list of the dead, it must be stated that the place of death of some outstanding writers could have been more clearly determined. Stefan Zweig, for instance, died at Petropolis, Brazil, and the civilized world received the news and the description of the state funeral with reverent interest. While certain German writers are mentioned as killed in action on the Nazi side, men like Adam Kuckhoff would have deserved that next to their date of death, the kind of death should have been pointed out: he was executed by the Nazis while Georg Hermann, the author of so many unforgettable books, was murdered by gas in one of the destruction camps.

It is to be hoped that the editor will find place and time to print a special memorial page for these and other martyrs in the next volume inasmuch as he found means to indicate that this or that author died on the battle field.

Otherwise, the present volume can already be highly recommended because it continues the old, good tradition, contains the list of the most important publishing houses in Germany Austria and Switzerland, and we may hope that necessary corrections and additions will be made next time.

ROBERT RIE

Bradley University

Pensativa, by JESÚS GOYTORTÚA. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Cuestionario and Vocabulary by Donald Devenish Walsh. New York: F. S. Crofts. 1947. 202 pp. Price, \$1.80.

Lluvia Roja, by JESÚS GOYTORTÚA. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Exercises and Vocabulary by Donald Devenish Walsh. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts. 1949. Price, \$1.90.

Pensativa, which received the 1945 Lanz Duret Prize, Mexico's national fiction award, is a mystery novel of sustained interest rising to a dramatic climax. *Lluvia Roja*, also a prize-winner and a best seller, is likewise a "thriller" of literary distinction. Without Graham Greene's subtlety and depth in—for instance—*The Labyrinthine Ways*, Jesús Goytortúa has much of Graham Greene's skill at holding and harrying the reader in such "entertainments" as *The Ministry of Fear*.

Pensativa, with a woman as protagonist, deals with 1928 post-civil war conditions in rural Mexico when devout partisan bands of *Cristeros* were active in opposition to the anti-clerical Articles of the Constitution and to the closing of Catholic primary schools and the deportation of foreign-born priests. Earlier in setting, the action of *Lluvia Roja* takes place during the 1923 De la Huerta revolt against Obregón. In this novel too a woman is the central figure; not as a leader, but as an innocent girl swept unaware into the whirlpool of revolution. The two novels are unlike in that *Pensativa* is ruled by devotion to a belief, a simple, passionate faith; while in *Lluvia Roja* the loyalties, though no less impassioned, are all personal and individual: to a friend, to a lover, to a *cacique*. Both narratives are related with verve and vivacity which should enhance Spanish lessons for the students for whom the present editions are intended.

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RICHARD PARKER

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LUE FURNESS

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stabilité monétaire est essen . . . pour . . . société . . . puisse . . . son équilibre
matériel et moral, et l'or seul réunit les qualités théoriques et pratiques nécessaires pour servir
d'étalon à la monnaie."

Gold is chosen because . . . "sa valeur, en vertu d'une longue expérience, s'est révélée
comme la plus constante, la plus stable, à travers les siècles."

We learn how paper money developed and why; how the value of this paper money has
depreciated and why. One discovers how and why the dollar, "qui reste la seule monnaie vrai-
ment internationale, est devenu un instrument bien imparfait et vulnérable."

"La Technique d'un Redressement Monétaire" is the title of the following chapter which
deals with the matter of inflation and how to remedy the ailment. In a few words, the cure is
the free development of individual enterprise—not governmental control.

The fourth chapter treats the matter of how France has fared since the Liberation, of
how the various attempts at stabilization of the franc have failed, of how the franc has fluc-
tuated and why. The influence of the increase in the number of government employees and the
tremendous cost to the government of the nationalization of industries is brought out. There
are several tables through which the author points out how the franc has been devaluated.

The heart of the book lies in the last chapter. There we have the author's solution of the

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"En organisant la mutualité, il ne faudra pas créer des masses énormes de capitaux dont le
placement est plus ou moins bien dirigé."

"A l'exception des chemins de fer, il faudra dénationaliser toutes les Sociétés d'Exploita-
tion."

"Il ne sera plus possible de tolérer que les Banques de dépôts continuent d'avoir des cen-
taines de succursales comme avant 1939. Il faudra, à cet égard, imiter le système américain qui
interdit les succursales en plusieurs Etats, permettant à toute Banque l'exploitation dans une
province seulement." . . . "Il est possible que les grandes "chaines" de magasins soient néfastes
à la santé sociales, puisqu'elles suppriment des quantités de petits patrons indépendants
qu'elles remplacent par des salariés: il sera bon de les limiter."

"Enfin, il faudra réajuster progressivement, mais rapidement, les loyers à des prix s'ap-
prochant de leur contrevalet en francs or de 1914, afin que la propriété bâtie retrouve de nou-
veaux investisseurs pour procurer logement à tout le monde."

Nine "Annexes" follow. Some of these are statistical, and, so far as the writer is con-
cerned, throw no further light on the subject!

If one is interested in the finances of France, this book will certainly be of much value to

the reader. There is rather much dullness here for the teacher who knows so little about monetary matters, and for the ordinary student of French one might well suggest a different kind of reading matter. Why not even a good *roman policier*!

HUGO GIDUZ

*The University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, N. C.*

HOOVER, KATHLEEN O'DONNELL, *Makers of Opera*. H. Bittner and Co., New York, 1948, pp. xiii+209+50. Price, \$7.50.

Makers of Opera is not just another book on opera, just another slightly altered compilation of well known and easily accessible material. It is an exceptional presentation—based on considerable original research—of eighteen men whom the author considers important *innovators* in the field of the lyric drama from the sixteenth to the nineteenth centuries: Peri, Monteverdi, Scarlatti, Pergolesi, Lully, Rameau, Gluck, Mozart, Beethoven, Weber, Meyerbeer, Wagner, Rossini, Verdi, Bizet, Mussorgsky, Debussy, and Richard Strauss.

Mrs. Hoover, not only presents the singular essence of their contribution as individuals, but traces the creative spirit in them by means of its idiosyncratic manifestations in order to show how and why the respective artist was an *originator*. The result is neither a collection of biographical sketches of the composers nor a series of analyses of their works, but rather a number of essays devoted to the creative economy of those men who, in the estimation of the author, "struck a new balance between music and drama."

In presenting this economy, Mrs. Hoover shows unusual ability in relating it to the larger areas—both historical and contemporary—of which it was a part, with the result that we do not get narrow musicology but cultural history of a uniquely penetrating sort. Particularly good, in this connection, is her associative treatment of music and literature, a treatment that would in many instances have been impossible without competent familiarity with primary sources.

In view of such competence, one can only regret that the material was so compressed. Thus, while one can understand the selective principle that included a Beethoven but omitted a Handel because, in the field of opera, the first was an innovator, the second largely a synthesizer, one wishes that more attention had been paid to the relation between innovator and synthesizer, or even to the points of congruence between innovators. Obviously limited by demands of space, Mrs. Hoover could not have given this expanded treatment. But it would have been helpful to the non-specialist, and would at the same time have improved the continuity of presentation, if such relationships had been clearly, even if briefly, delineated and correlated. Thus, for example, the influence of Lully on Handel is left unmentioned, while the significance of Scarlatti's operas for the development of the German's style is only vaguely suggested. Furthermore, while the author beautifully characterizes the lyric drama of Debussy, she does not justify by adequate demonstration her statement "that it can hope for no descendants."

To the text proper are added sixteen pages of notes and fifty pages of first rate illustrations. Unfortunately, the book also contains a singularly barren introduction by Carleton Sprague Smith, for which this reviewer could find no more justification than for Mrs. Hoover's occasional stylistic affectations.

Fortunately, these defects, however unseemly, do not seriously detract from the general excellence of the book. One can omit Mr. Smith's introductory survey, and it is easy to smile with forbearance when Mrs. Hoover temporarily forsakes her honest directness to turn a polished but meaningless phrase. For, with fine intellectual artistry, she has produced not only an uncommonly revealing and readable sketch of the growth of opera, but an equally valuable study of art and the artist. As a result, this work deserves the consideration of every teacher of foreign languages who is interested in the continuous vitalizing of the language program through the germane expansion of its considerations.

ERNST KOCH

Brooklyn College